

The Nation.

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The Week.

It pleases Mr. Platt, who has made the nomination of Mr. Morton for the Governorship of New York, and all the Republican leaders and newspapers that are falling into line in support of it, to say that Gov. Flower's withdrawal as a candidate for renomination means that he is unwilling to run against so strong a candidate as Mr. Morton; yet not one of them believes this to be the case. The real reason of Gov. Flower's withdrawal is as well known to them as it is to every other competent observer in the State. He has withdrawn because the nomination of Mr. Morton gives the Democrats a chance of victory. So long as they believed their party to be without such a chance, the Democratic managers were willing that the Governor should run again; but so soon as Morton's nomination was certain, they realized that the outlook had changed so much for the better that, with a strong candidate, they had a chance of saving themselves from defeat. That they have some reason for taking this view cannot be denied. Mr. Morton takes the field simply as Boss Platt's candidate, and if he should be elected, he will go into office as Platt's man. On this point we have only to cite Republican evidence for conclusive proof.

The Republican platform adopted at Saratoga last week was evidently written by a common scold. It denounces about one thousand facts and tendencies which it observes in the Democratic party, without saying, however, what the Republicans would do or ought to do if they had the power. For example, the Democrats have enacted an income tax. This is declared to be a tax on prosperity, and an inquisitorial measure, authorizing the invasion of counting-rooms and domiciles and the exposure of private business. Naturally we look for some promise or hint that the Republicans will repeal so odious a measure as soon as possible. Nothing of the kind. There is not the remotest suggestion that that tax will be repealed or modified in any way. So, too, with regard to the tariff. About one-half of the platform is engaged in exposing the badness of the new law. The innocent reader might infer that this is to be repealed, or at all events that the duties are to be materially advanced as soon as the Republican party can muster votes enough for the purpose. Here again the platform is silent. There is not even a promise to restore the duties on wool. This omission can-

not be the result of oversight. There is a specific charge in the platform that the South has been enabled to secure protection for the chief products of that section while reducing protective duties on the products of the North; but only one Southern product is mentioned, namely, rice. The only other distinctively Southern product which is susceptible of protection is sugar, and here the protection has been reduced one-half—the bounty of two cents being superseded by a tariff of one cent. But if the charge of favoritism to the South were true, we should look for some promise to right the wrong. We find none. All this shows that the Republican party is not going to make McKinleyism an issue in the coming campaign.

On the silver question the Saratoga Republicans have taken an entirely safe position. "We favor an honest dollar," they say. Nobody can object to that, although some definition of an honest dollar might be desired. "We oppose any effort, whether by the removal of the tax on State-bank issues or the free coinage of silver, to lower our currency standard; and we favor an international agreement which shall result in the use of both gold and silver as a circulating medium." There is no harm in this, and that is saying a good deal when we recall the utterances of ex-Speaker Reed and Senator Lodge and the platforms of some other conventions. "An international agreement which shall result in the use of both gold and silver as a circulating medium" is an extremely indefinite proposition. Both gold and silver are used now as a circulating medium, but silver is not coined *ad libitum* for private persons. Assuming that the convention meant an international agreement for free coinage of both metals, the chance of getting it is about the same as of getting an agreement to stop the movement of the tides. Nevertheless, the resolution is to be distinctly commended.

The Ohio idea of finance is, that the poor man is entitled to poor money. At all events that is what the Democratic politicians think, and the Republicans, with John Sherman in the lead, are only a few steps behind them as a general rule. This year the Republicans adopted the Reed-Lodge idea of discriminating in our tariff legislation against countries that would not agree to international free coinage of silver. This was just sufficient to impel the Democrats to "go one better," by endorsing free coinage without international action. Of course the latter is much the worse platform of the two. It ought to, and probably

will, result in condign punishment at the polls, for which there are other good and sufficient reasons in the conduct of Senator Brice. It is a pity that somebody had not been present to give these sapient delegates a brief history of the attempts made in Ohio to provide poor money for poor men. In 1875 they set out to do this. The poorest kind of money in sight then was greenbacks, silver being still above par. So the Ohio Democrats, with "Old Bill Allen" at their head, after full deliberation and due warning, adopted a platform calling for more greenbacks, the amount to be limited only by "the wants of trade." The wants of trade meant, of course, the wants of anybody and everybody in trade, and that meant unlimited greenbacks. The issue was made upon this basis. The Democrats at that time were in possession of the State Government in all its branches; Allen being Governor and being a candidate for reelection. The doctrine of poor money for poor men was subjected to examination and discussion on the stump. The result was that "Old Bill Allen" was defeated by Rutherford B. Hayes. This victory caused Hayes to be nominated for President the next year. Allen was never heard of in politics again. The lesson served its purpose for sixteen years. Then the Democratic party had another fit of poor money for poor men, choosing silver this time as the poorest thing within reach. This time again they had possession of the State Government, James E. Campbell being Governor. In 1891 the party put a free-silver plank in its platform, Gov. Campbell having said that he was "willing to chance it." The chances went against him by 21,000 majority, notwithstanding the fact that it was a year of Democratic success in the country at large.

The Democratic congressional committee at Washington has sent out a list of the documents which it is supplying to the clubs for campaign purposes. Most of them are on the subject of the tariff and are unobjectionable. They represent all shades of opinion on the Democratic side. On the silver question, however, there is only one speech in the list, and that is the worst one that could have been found—that of W. J. Bryan of Nebraska. The Democratic party not being sufficiently pro-silver for Mr. Bryan, he has gone into the Populists' camp and is now seeking an election to the Senate by their votes. It is either a gross blunder or an unjustifiable outrage that such a speech should be the only one sent out as representing Democratic opinion. Something might be said, also, of the fact that the only speech in the list on the anti-

option bill is that of Gen. Wheeler of Alabama, a supporter of that outrageous attack on the common rights of American citizens. The chairman of the committee is Senator Faulkner of West Virginia, but he is not one of the executive committee. The latter is composed of Senators Jones of Arkansas, White, Mitchell of Wisconsin, Smith, and Pasco, and Representatives Pigott, McRae, McAleer, Whiting, Jones, Bynum, Heard, Forman, McMillin, and Wheeler.

The resolutions passed by the Louisiana sugar-planters, who seceded from the Democratic party the other day, declare that the bounty on sugar in the McKinley tariff was the equivalent of a duty on importation, and was virtually a contract between themselves and the United States running till 1905. This leads to the inquiry what kind of a contract the Government made with the wool-growers and all the other protected interests. Were these contracts running for ever? The year 1905 was written against the sugar bounty not to extend to that date, but to offset and negative the idea that it was to continue longer and become a permanent policy. It was a tacit acknowledgment that bounties, although they are the equivalent of duties, are more transparent humbugs, more easily understood, and therefore more unpopular. This was the reason why a time-limit was put to them. Now the question is a very proper one, Did the transparency and unpopularity of the bounty system have the effect to make it more sacred than all the disguised and hidden bounties in the tariff were? We cannot see that any such consequence followed. Another resolution which these planters adopted "solemnly protests against the continuance of the treaty with Hawaii, by which, under the recently enacted tariff, the producers of sugar of those islands, with the coolie labor, will receive a bounty from the sugar-consumers of the United States of over \$6,000,000 per annum." On this point they have our hearty sympathy, but we doubt whether they will win that of the Republican party.

"Apaism" is the barbarous word invented or adopted by Bishop Spaulding to describe the anti-Catholic organization which is now cutting so considerable a figure in politics in various parts of the country. We shall probably hear a good deal of this society for the next year or two. Chairman Hurd was doubtless right in telling the Ohio Democrats last week that the new secret and proscriptive organization was almost solidly against their party, and that it contributed not a little to McKinley's famous majority of a year ago. Both Neal and McKinley were invited at the time to give their opinion of an

oath-bound and secret society, on a religious basis, going into politics. Neal openly condemned it as repugnant to American ideas and political methods, and McKinley—dodged. His dodging won him the A. P. A. votes, and his success in that respect seems to have set the fashion for the Republicans ever since. They dodge open expressions either for or against the A. P. A., but take its votes with a good deal of complacency. They were asked at Saratoga to go on record against it, but smothered the thing in the committee on resolutions. But sooner or later they will have to come out against it. The A. P. A. will not be content to furnish votes to the Republican party without recognition. It stepped in and ran the Republican primaries at Springfield, Mass., the other night, and now it is reported to have defeated Senator Lodge's candidate for Congress in the Lynn district. Such an aggressive organization will not go on as a silent partner of the Republicans. It will demand recognition and alliance, and if rebuffed, as it is sure to be when the pinch comes, it will set up for itself and soon go the way of all its multitudinous Know-Nothing predecessors.

Mr. William Everett has declined to be a candidate for renomination to Congress from the Seventh Massachusetts District, and the Democratic machine is gratified to get rid of him. He has rendered himself objectionable to the professional politicians of the party by his refusal to make himself a mere dispenser of patronage. He tried to withdraw altogether from connection with the business, and he has done nothing more than, in a very few cases, to act as the medium between his district and the departments, confining his services then strictly to bringing before the appointing power such facts as he knew, and thus letting the people speak for themselves, "remembering always that I was not the representative of a party organization merely, but of an integral district, every citizen of which had an equal claim to have his needs brought before the department which selects official servants." Of course, the professional politicians in any party "have no use for" such a man, and it is a credit to Mr. Everett that the machine was opposed to his renomination. No Democrat can carry the district this year, and its next representative will be a Republican who has no qualms on the subject of patronage.

In a statement to his constituents Mr. Everett reviews the record of the Democratic House, in which he finds much to commend. Although he could not bring himself to vote for the Gorman tariff bill, he thinks that the President did well not to veto it, as

neither the country nor Congress could have borne longer delay, and he believes that "the new act, with all its faults and all the evil influences which shaped it, is a great and real victory over the principle of protection, crowning the persistent efforts of the tariff-reformers for twelve years on the floor of Congress with a substantial victory, the augury of new advances in commercial emancipation." Mr. Everett speaks of his pleasure in supporting "that essentially Democratic measure, the repeal of the Federal Election laws"; says that he "followed without the slightest misgivings President Cleveland's views on foreign affairs"; and commends in the highest terms his action in the riots at Chicago. There were several occasions when he could not follow the leaders of the Democratic party, but Mr. Everett says that he could not find that his independent votes lost him the respect and regard of his party colleagues. He is profoundly convinced that "the ablest men on both sides of the House do injury to their own better judgment and higher ideals, their mutual respect, and their usefulness and reputation among the people at large, by thinking so much of party allegiance and party organization, which they seem to have persuaded themselves are an end instead of a means—often a very cumbrous one." A civil-service reformer before he entered Congress, Mr. Everett will withdraw a more ardent advocate of the merit system, believing, as he does from his observations there, that "the spoils or patronage system of appointment, particularly as exercised through members of Congress, is unjustifiable in principle and mischievous in practice, a hindrance and not a help to the parties which alternately exercise it." It is a misfortune that so good a public servant cannot be retained.

It is rather absurd to hail as "home rule for cities"—the very mild amendment on that subject adopted by the Constitutional Convention at Albany. All that it does is, to give the mayors of the large cities and the mayors and local legislative bodies of the smaller cities power to pass judgment upon special legislation affecting those cities. If the local powers approve, the bills are sent after passage to the Governor for action; if they disapprove, the bills must be passed again by the Legislature by majority vote before being sent to the Governor. It would be extremely difficult to find much "home rule" in this proceeding. The chief advantage of allowing the local authorities to go through the motions of having some power in the premises would be that the delay and publicity attending the performance might call additional attention to the subjects involved, and might in this way secure wiser final ac-

tion. To ask the people of the cities to regard the amendment as the gift of home rule, is to give them very slight credit for intelligence. The real home-rule amendment is that for separate elections.

While the tariff bill was under consideration, the Chamber of Commerce of Seattle, Wash., passed a series of lugubrious resolutions, protesting against the removal of the duty on lumber, and predicting dire disaster to the lumber interests of "the great State of Washington" if the duty should be removed. As lumber is the most important product of western Washington, and as Seattle is the chief commercial city of the State, this action of a representative commercial body naturally attracted wide attention. But something has gone wrong with the predictions, for we read in the chief McKinleyite newspaper of Seattle that the lumber business is just now in a phenomenally flourishing condition. "More than fifty vessels" are loading for Valparaiso. Orders from China and Australia "have increased 45 or 50 per cent." As a result, the Puget mill at Port Gamble has started "in full blast," and the one at Port Ludlow will soon do likewise. Port Blakely has been running night and day for two weeks. Had such activity come after increased duties, we should have all known to what cause to attribute it; as it is, we can only wonder at the mysterious ways of Providence.

It is gratifying to observe that the financial disasters lately experienced in the colony of Victoria are having a salutary effect upon the policy of the Government. The high protective duties have failed to yield any increase of revenue, and a strong feeling has arisen in favor of their reduction. As in this country, those who favor this policy do not advocate free trade, but tariff reform, although a free-trade association is in active existence. If all the elements favoring reduced duties can be united, they will make a strong party, and it appears that they are agreed in demanding that the maximum rate of duty shall not exceed 25 per cent. If this low rate makes the Victorian reformers appear to be in advance of those in America, it is to be remembered that they have a stronger case. This country is one of the greatest manufacturing countries of the world, but the population engaged in manufactures in Victoria is but a minute fraction of the whole. The total population is 1,167,000, while those engaged in factories number only 43,192. During the term of office of the present Government it is claimed that 28,000 persons have been settled upon the land, so that it is obvious where the great interests of the colony lie. As Victoria has always been

the stronghold of the protectionists, the election will be watched with great interest. The recent triumph of the free-trade party in New South Wales is thought to augur well for the extension of the movement. It may be added that the Victorian Government claims to have retrenched its expenses £1,500,000 within the last two years, though there is still a heavy deficit.

The question put to the bimetalists by the London *Economist*—Why are there such vast accumulations of gold in the banks?—has drawn forth answers which are very suggestive of weakness of position. One correspondent states that so great and widespread an appreciation of the currency as that which has recently occurred has no parallel except in the "falling era of the Roman Empire," and adds: "Who can say that if there had not then been congestion of wealth in Rome to the detriment of Roman industries, the sword of an invader could have been thrown into Roman scales to outweigh Roman gold?" This has an impressive sound, but it is hardly relevant to the issue. The climax of weakness appears to be reached by the specific explanation which another writer offers of this accumulation of gold in the banks. He maintains that the people who have deposited this gold have done so with the expectation that its appreciation in value would bring them in a profit equal to the interest which they could obtain by investing it. We doubt if a single man has deliberately hoarded gold with any such expectation. It is conceivable that this may have been done at the time of the general demonetization of silver, although we know of no evidence to prove it. But it is not even conceivable that it should be done now, because everyone anticipates a period of rising prices. A rise of prices would involve a loss of capital as well as of interest, and even stationary prices would mean loss of interest. The people that hoard gold are not given to such speculations.

The "Independent Labor Party," got up by Tom Mann, has been displaying so much activity in England lately that it has become a bugbear to the politicians, and is the only thing which now makes the Liberals doubt whether they could win at a general election. It forms an uncertain element in a good many constituencies, and is likely to draw off a certain number of votes from the Liberals. Tom is now laboring hard to make it a Socialist party, and has been boasting a good deal of his success. What he aims at is the reorganization of the whole state on the collectivist principle; that is, "the state" is to own all the land, all the machinery, and all the capital, and to give us all work

to do, according to our capacity, and the state would of course consist of the Manns, the Powderlys, the Debses, and the like, with probably a professor or two thrown in. The London *Economist* feels called on to warn the trade unions against falling into Tom Mann's snares and becoming political, as a sure way to waste their strength and bring themselves into insignificance, but the advice will probably not be taken in its entirety. Meddling in politics is very attractive to the workingman, and especially to the leaders of the labor organizations, who do the talking and writing. They are rarely content with the modest rôle of mere negotiators between workingmen and employers. They want to figure in the wider field of statesmanship, and be big men about election time.

"What will the Duc d'Orléans do?" is a question which the French newspapers are now busily asking, some of them with sympathetic interest, but most of them with an emotion not much stronger than mild curiosity. The duke is a young gentleman who has, so far, manifested himself to the world chiefly by two escapades, one of a public and the other of a private sort. Of the latter, nothing need be said. The former consisted in his melodramatic appearance in Paris, some two or three years ago, when he asserted with loud cries his right as a Frenchman to perform the military service which the country exacts from her sons, and insisted that he should be sent at once to serve with the colors. Instead, he was most unsympathetically sent to jail, where he received many attentions from the best Parisian society. His prison life was largely spent in making himself the delight of his guests, but severer mental labors were not neglected. His table was supplied from one of the great restaurants, and some of the *menus* which he composed at this time show a gastronomic experience and wisdom quite beyond his tender years. After a brief detention the harsh republic sent him—a martyr in will, if not in fact—quietly home to his papa. Two of the great French newspapers—or rather their editors, M. François Magnard of the *Figaro* and M. Arthur Meyer of the *Gaulois*—seem much to admire the young duke. Perhaps fifteen or twenty more or less well-known journalists follow them. But while all these agree in sentiment, there is no agreement in the counsels that they give. So M. Magnard counsels patience and waiting, where his confrère urges confidence and activity. If the duke follows the advice of the *Figaro*, he will undoubtedly find life for some years much more enjoyable than if he decides for action. For nothing is more certain than that he could not reach the second mile-post after he passed the frontier of France as an "actif," before finding himself in a guard-house.

REORGANIZATION OF THE NAVAL OBSERVATORY.

It is gratifying to know that Secretary Herbert has at last listened to the protests of scientific men on the past management of what is in reality, if not in name, the national observatory of the United States. He publicly admits that its administration has not been what it should be, and has taken what doubtless seem to him effective measures of reform. It is significant that these measures are taken only when a system which, at the old observatory, was an abuse, had, at the new one, become such a discredit to the country that something was almost sure to be speedily done by Congress if not by the department. Even if what the astronomers have got as a result of half a century of asking proves to be stone rather than bread, it is something to have it so frankly conceded that their demands were just, and their efforts directed to the promotion of the public interests.

Whether the new measures of organization will result in the desired reform can best be judged by a glance at the evil to be remedied. The old observatory cannot be said to have had any organization. It differed from all other bureaus of the Government, scientific and administrative, in not having any well-defined public functions for the non-performance of which it could be called to account. The Weather Bureau is officially expected to record and predict the changes of weather; the Coast Survey to engage in geodetic and surveying operations; the Geological Survey to investigate the geological and mineral resources of the public domain and prepare a map of the United States. But the observatory was never formally charged with any duty more important or arduous than the storage, care, and issue of charts, chronometers, and spy-glasses for the naval service. No law or permanent regulation even required it to make or publish astronomical observations. It could never be convicted of inefficiency or neglect of duty, because it had no duty to neglect. The secretary of the navy from time to time ordered naval officers of rank and prominence to duty as superintendent, just as he would send them to command the Brooklyn navy-yard during a tour of shore duty. If during the last twenty years any regard has been paid to possible astronomical qualifications in choosing a superintendent, an examination of the selections made fails to show it. It has been said that the view sometimes controlling the selection was that the less the superintendent knew about the work the better, because the less he would be tempted to "interfere" with the researches of the able professors who composed the astronomical corps. Professors and civilian astronomers were appointed from time to time and ordered to report to the superintendent for duty; the

secretary of the navy wisely leaving it to the superintendent to prescribe that duty, because he himself knew nothing of astronomical work. But it could scarcely be said that, for any practical purpose, the superintendent knew any more than he did. If a superintendent felt the need of law and order, the best he could do in any case was to find out what the professor wanted to do, and then order him to do it.

The result of all this was precisely what might have been foreseen. Now and then an able and ambitious astronomer would get into the corps of the observatory and make observations or discoveries which would gain for him a wide personal reputation, and perhaps a high position in the world of science. But the majority soon found by experience that efforts to set the Thames on fire were not conducive either to mental satisfaction or to physical well-being, and wisely refrained from them. The case at the new observatory was worse than at the old one in proportion to the complexity of its machinery. Its condition since it was occupied two or three years ago might be described as one of almost complete paralysis, so far as astronomical activity is concerned.

Secretary Herbert's reform consists in leaving the establishment under a naval head as heretofore, but placing the astronomical instruments and personnel under the complete control of Prof. Harkness, the senior member of the observatory corps, with the title of "director of astronomy." He is to report upon the efficiency of the force, determine its duties, and inspect its work, day and night. The whole scope and character of the work to be done is to be determined by him alone, unaided by board or council, and he is to be entirely responsible for its scientific value.

This confidence in an astronomer is very well so far as it goes, but it leaves a crowd of questions unanswered. What duties are left for the superintendent, who, according to the new plan, is still to be a naval officer? To which authority, the superintendent or the director, is the clerical force to look for orders? Which is the custodian of the correspondence? Who shall control the expenditures and decide upon the contracts for repairs to be entered into? If, as it is to be expected, all these doubtful questions are to be decided in favor of the naval head of the establishment, it is not clear that any real reform has been inaugurated. Formerly it was held that each person in charge of an instrument was responsible for the observations to be made with that instrument. But this was found to amount to nothing, because the person in charge of the instrument had no real power. Now, one person is in charge of four or five of the instruments, with but little

more power than he had when in charge of one. There is an instrument-maker attached to the observatory, but the director has no control over him. The director must make reports to the secretary of the navy, and prepare work for publication, but he has no clerk to copy his letters or reports. He will want labor performed, but has no control over the force of laborers.

But if it is finally decided that the astronomical director shall control not only the astronomical work, but everything necessary to that work, then the functions of the naval officer in charge sink into insignificance. The whole work of the establishment is scientific, and if there is any person connected with it whose services are not required for such work, he is a superfluity. An establishment cannot work successfully under two heads. If the naval superintendent is still the managing head, then trying to hold a subordinate responsible for the work is like trying to hold a sailing-master responsible for the course of a vessel when the captain has hold of the helm.

After all the attention given to the subject, the Navy Department seems imbued with the old mistake which alone led to the toleration of the abuses in the past administration of the observatory. This is the notion that the work of the establishment can be divided into two branches, the one administrative and the other scientific; and that it is in some mysterious way very useful to the naval service. The fact is that its essentially naval functions are quite unimportant and could be better performed elsewhere. No ships sail from Washington on their cruises, and it would be better to keep the appliances of navigation at such navy-yards as Brooklyn or Norfolk than at Washington. This is especially true of the chronometers. The practice of sending these instruments several hundred miles overland to be placed on board ships is so detrimental to their performance that we wonder at its having been so long persisted in. The whole naval branch of the observatory could be well housed in very inexpensive quarters at the Brooklyn navy-yard, and a removal to that point would be in the interest of both efficiency and economy. The character of the work, which consists merely in repairing and testing the instruments, would not suffer in the least, while the good name of our national observatory would be redeemed, and its economical administration assured.

THE CORPORATION PROBLEM.

In the *Political Science Quarterly* for September Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell has a well-considered article on such corporations as he calls "capitalistic

monopolies," meaning by that term such companies or Trusts as practically eliminate the chances of competition as well by the large amount of capital required as by the fact that they are natural monopolies. The article in question truthfully says that we should not seek to abolish huge corporations even if we could, for in no other way, so far as we can now see, can the cheapening process in manufacture be continued. The degree of saving in expense possible in the case of a large company differs in different lines of trade; but all those familiar with business conditions as they now are, admit that important economies are thus possible in any department of trade or manufacturing when carefully examined.

The public dread of huge combinations of capital seems to arise from the feeling that the majority of these great companies are getting rich at the expense of the public; in other words, that they are keeping for themselves all the possible profits of the combination. While in a number of cases the profits of these corporations have not been relatively as great as they might have been—inasmuch as there has been something of a division with the consuming public—yet the tables presented in the *Quarterly* show at least that the gradual decrease in the margin of profits has been checked by the combinations. The Standard Oil Company has repeatedly shown in print that the price of oil is much less now than it was before the formation of the Trust. The argument, so far as it goes, is a strong one, and no doubt is one reason for the comparative success of that combination. Yet a comparison of the prices of crude and refined oil for twenty-five years, while showing a marked decline in the difference between the two—that is to say, in the margin of cost and profits—shows also very little reduction in this margin for the last dozen years. During this period there has been a great increase in the value of by-products—an increase great enough to have apparently justified a still lower price for oil, while at the same time yielding an increase of profits to the Trust.

In the same way the diagram of the cost of corn and spirits at Peoria shows a larger difference since the formation of the whiskey monopoly than before, and the diagram for the sugar monopoly shows a slightly higher margin of difference after than before the formation of the Sugar Trust. No doubt some of the old sugar refineries previous to the Trust were run without profit, and from their point of view an advance in the price of the refined article was justified; yet we must remember that this was true only of those refineries which were badly situated, or had neglected to provide themselves with the most modern machinery. Then, too, the cost of manufacture has

been materially lessened through the ability of the combined company to control the market for the raw material and to lessen the expense of distribution. On the whole, after making every allowance for the fair profit to which these huge combinations may be entitled, there is yet no reason to doubt that they have kept for themselves by far the largest share of the profits which the economies of the combination permitted.

Prof. Jenks presents fairly the general case of the corporations. In his opinion, for example, "it is doubtful if in the long run and on the whole our so-called robber barons of the monopolies are much harder on their competitors than is the system of free competition—and this from the standpoint either of the competitors or of society at large." The main indictment, then, against the huge combination is in brief as follows: that the extra profits arising out of economies possible under the corporation form are not divided between the corporation and the consuming public—to say nothing of the employees—but are kept by the combinations to a greater degree than is consistent with economic justice. The state which gave these combinations their opportunity may rightly control them. But to what extent is such control advisable? Putting aside the socialistic programme as quite inexpedient, the article makes two suggestions: first, the state should recognize the right of combination to an unlimited extent as necessary for the lowest cost of production; and, second, the public must, in the interest of both consumers and investors, know the nature and general business condition of the monopolistic organizations. Prof. Jenks, further, suggests an inspector or a commission which shall have power to get sworn returns, inspect accounts, etc., as in the case of national banks.

Practically these recommendations look no further at present than the enforcement of publicity, and it must be confessed that we do certainly need more information about the business and profits of these combinations if they are to be justly and fairly regulated in the future. A number of difficulties at once suggest themselves, supposing this programme to be agreed upon. Which industries should be subject to these examinations, and which not? Should these investigations go so far as to reveal business secrets now so carefully guarded? Another difficulty would lie in the fact that such investigations would have to be conducted by the States themselves. There is so much jealousy already existing between the States regarding the domicile of corporations as to make it doubtful whether any one of them—New Jersey for illustration—would be willing to take the initiative and so possibly check the rush of incorporators to Trenton. Still, from an abstract point of view, there is no reason why the

sugar, oil, lead, or whiskey combinations should not be required to file complete statistics of operation as well as railroads, or banks, or insurance companies. Commercial causes may be relied upon to keep down the profits of combinations to a certain extent—such, for example, as the competition of foreign refined sugar with the domestic article when the protective duty is abolished; yet if we look the civilized world over, it seems probable that the question of the intrinsic fairness of the dealings of corporations with the consuming public will one day have to be met. Indeed, it may easily be that in time these organizations would themselves welcome a fair degree of publicity as a protection against extreme legislation.

While, therefore, there is at present no cut-and-dried remedy for the abuses possible in a state or society where huge combinations furnish the greater part of the necessities of life, yet a discussion of the problem which comes to no definite conclusion, but merely looks toward fuller information, is not to be condemned, since a better understanding may at least avert rough or crude attempts at solution.

PROGRESS AMONG THE PROTECTIONISTS.

In an article entitled 'Value of Labor Statistics,' the *American Wool and Cotton Reporter* is led to make some remarks to manufacturers which, in view of their source, have great significance. It expresses its approval of the practice of comparing the yearly earnings of working people in manufactures in this country with those prevailing in similar occupations in countries which may be regarded as competitors. Such a practice, it maintains, is at least more useful than that of setting against one another daily or weekly schedules of wages; but, after all, it confesses, the most instructive facts concerning the comparative remuneration of laborers "can never be deduced from, or even discovered in, the most comprehensive and most carefully prepared statistical tables yet in vogue."

There are two elements in determining comparative earnings which are of vital importance, but which, from the complexity of the circumstances, can hardly be considered in any general statistical tables. One is the efficiency of labor in different countries and in different branches of industry; the other is the "average standard of intelligence," the habits of workmen in the general ordering of their lives, as to saving, education, ownership of homes, etc. As to the former element, the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* brings forward the case of carders of cotton, asserting it as a well-known fact that in an American mill using the English carding-machine, working the same stock for making the same num-

bers of yarn, our carders will produce in the same time 30 per cent. more carding than is produced in an English mill under like conditions. As to the second point, the *Reporter* observes that to appreciate its significance it is only necessary to compare the status of workmen in one locality with that of workmen similarly engaged elsewhere in the same industry and in the same region, perhaps only a few miles away. The greatest differences will be found to exist in their modes of living, their general intelligence, and their thrift.

"Now," the *Reporter* continues, "the ultimate purpose of the employment of the alleged facts in such comparative tables is to use them as data for reasoning to a conclusion that one of the two sets of operatives similarly employed is existing and developing under much more favorable conditions, or under much less favorable circumstances, as the case may be, because of the politico-commercial system that may be in vogue in the one geographical locality or the other. Now we desire to say that, for the most part, generalization upon such facts as these tables assume to give concerning two or more theoretically similar groups of manufacturing operatives differently located will be hazardous, because of the palpable insufficiency of data."

We are glad to see such sensible observations as these in a journal circulating among protected manufacturers; for the bearing of these facts upon the arguments for protective duties which are most in vogue among these people is obvious. They have all been brought up to believe that they could not compete with European manufacturers because American laborers had to be paid much higher wages than those of any other country. In order to bolster themselves up in this superstition, they have called in the assistance of the Government to furnish them with just such worthless statistics as are above described. Many of them, we doubt not, sincerely accept these statistics as conclusively showing that without a protective duty nobody could profitably make anything in this country; and if the statistics proved anything, they ought to prove what they were constructed to prove. But, for the reasons now laid before our manufacturers by their own organ, such tables of wages are useless. It would be easy to prove by them that the English cotton manufacturers could not compete with those of India, because the latter pay their workmen only a fifth or a tenth of the English wages, and that therefore England needed protection against Indian goods. As a matter of fact, the English manufacturers beat those of India, except in coarse cloths, at their own doors, and the Indian manufacturers are now whining because Parliament will not let the Indian Government adopt a protective tariff.

Nothing can be more wholesome for our manufacturers than to be told by a voice which they will regard as friendly that it is time for them to discard their stock argument. The sooner they emerge from their traditional state of apprehension of the competition of "European pauper labor," the quicker will they begin the magnificent commercial career upon which the incomparable advantages of this country invite them to enter. Heretofore, they have blindly turned their backs upon the markets of the world, and tried to build a wall about this country which should allow goods to pass out while preventing them from coming in.

NAVY SCARES.

LORD FARRER, whose reputation as a financier is well known, has an article in the last *Contemporary Review* on Sir William Harcourt's budget, which touches incidentally on one of its most important features. As is already well known, Sir William is the first Chancellor of the Exchequer who has had the courage to attempt to infuse order into the financial chaos known in England as the succession or "death" duties. Suffice it to say, without going into details, that although these duties are very heavy, landed property has hitherto almost wholly escaped them, in part owing to the general practice of transmitting estates by "settlement," either at the time of a man's marriage, or on his eldest son's coming of age.

The point in Lord Farrer's article, however, to which we call attention is not so much financial as moral. He shows that what has put Sir William Harcourt to his wits' ends and compelled him to find new sources of revenue is the call for a larger navy, which the ministry dared not resist, but which entailed an addition to the estimates of over \$15,000,000. It is the need of finding this sum somewhere without increasing the existing burdens of the poorer classes, which drove him to taking up the succession duties. Now, the call for more army and navy almost always comes from the upper classes. It is they who are most concerned about the security of the Empire, and who are, or profess to be, most afraid of the French and the Germans and the Russians. They have stopped calling for a larger army, because voluntary enlistment has apparently reached its last limits, and, if the army is further increased, it must apparently be through conscription, which no party is bold enough to propose. But there is apparently no limit whatever to the size which they think the British navy ought to have. Some years ago they were content if it were larger than the French navy, France being then the only maritime power of importance. But of late Germany and Russia have

both begun to have considerable navies, and, if our fighting men have their way, we shall soon have a large navy also. Consequently the promoters of navy scares now maintain that Great Britain must have a navy equal to any other two navies, and of late they have even begun to talk of three navies. Sir William has therefore taken them, at their word. Great Britain is to be a match for any two maritime powers, but the money is to come out of the pockets of the heirs to the landed estates—that is, the men who want the increase of the navy are to pay for it. As Lord Farrer says, "The classes who call for increased naval and military expenditure have had an excellent object-lesson. They have been taught that those who call the tune must pay the piper."

Lord Farrer points out that the sole result of the last "naval scare" was that other powers increased their navies as fast as Great Britain increased hers, and this will undoubtedly be the result of the present scare also. But he predicts, with a good deal of force, that if the upper classes are to pay for it, there will not be another for a long time. There may be behind these scares a certain amount of real anxiety about the security of the empire, but their main motive is undoubtedly, as with us, simple national vanity—the desire to display great strength in foreign eyes and to be able to "lick" somebody. There is not the shadow of danger to our soil from any quarter, and yet we have every year a cry for a bigger navy, in order to impress the imaginations of foreigners and make them "stand around." A recent naval writer in one of our magazines, in picturing the future of a great American navy, makes the cutting out of ships condemned in foreign ports for a violation of the customs regulations one of its duties. Then there is in England, besides this, an immense pressure from the upper and upper middle classes in favor of anything which will find occupation for their younger sons, who are now very hard pushed for employment, and for whom the navy has always been a favorite field. But they have never before had to put their hands into the pockets of the eldest sons in order to pay for the ships, and the probabilities are that, if the expenses of large armaments are to be met by a class tax, it will greatly abate the warlike spirit.

The truth is, that the naval and military craze of modern nations has now reached such a point that increased security must be sought in diminution of armaments. Powers, instead of watching each other and following each other up the scale of expense, must enter into negotiations for some fixed proportion between their navies, so that when a naval scare breaks out it will take the form of a demand for reduction. The notion that the only remedy for the

present situation is a general war is ridiculous, because every war adds to the reasons for going to war again. Territory or prestige is lost which must be recovered, or a national thirst for revenge is created which must be slaked.

THE REPORT OF THE IRISH LAND-ACTS COMMITTEE.

DUBLIN, September 4, 1894.

THE Parliamentary session now concluded has been singularly disappointing in legislation relating to Ireland. The report of the Irish Land-Acts Committee, however, redeems it in no small measure. It is the contention of the majority of Irishmen that, under existing conditions, ameliorative measures, even when passed for their country, are in their administration cramped in their application, or shorn of benefits intended to have been conferred by them. "Raw and unboiled justice," the letter of the law, is not all-sufficient for the needs of a people.

Landlord opinion, until a recent period, held Ireland, as it were, in a vise. The country had to be brought almost to the verge of insurrection before the acts of 1870, 1881, and 1887 could be passed. In England, where a smaller proportion of the population depended upon the land for sustenance, and where the necessities of the agricultural classes were not so pressing, the untrammelled force of public opinion has, without material suffering or disturbance, and without any alteration in the law, effected more than has been effected in Ireland by all that has passed of late years. One of the ablest and bitterest of Irish Unionists writes in the August number of the *National Review*:

"Since the passing of the Land Act of 1881, 294,054 rents have been fixed by the courts [in Ireland]. The old rental of these farms was £6,140,602 16s. 6d.; the revised or judicial rental is £4,861,127 15s. 2d.—a reduction of 20.8 per cent. Now, I ask any one acquainted with British agriculture to take this solid fact and compare it with what he knows has taken place in England and Scotland. I am perfectly within the mark when I say that British landlords within the same period have lost 40 per cent. of their rental. They also create and maintain the plant of the farm. The Irish landlord does nothing in this way. He simply draws a rent from the land."

The Land-Acts Committee was constituted last April upon a minute of reference, "To inquire into and report upon the principles and practice of the Irish Land Commissioners and county court judges in carrying out the fair-rent and free-sale provisions of the land acts of 1870, 1881, and 1887," etc. It was composed of five Irish nationalists and four British Liberals; of five Irish and three English Unionists. Mr. Morley was the chairman. It held thirty-five meetings, examined a number of individual and official witnesses, and has reported upon the first portion of its reference; the Unionist members, with the exception of one, having retired under protest.

The clear intentions of the act of 1881 are found to have been neutralized or circumvented to a considerable extent by the decisions of the Irish courts and by methods of administration. Section 8 of the act appeared clear enough:

"No rent shall be allowed or made payable in any proceedings under this act in respect of improvements made by the tenant or his predecessors in title, and for which, in the opinion of the court, the tenant or his predecessors in title shall not have been paid or otherwise compensated by the landlord or his predecessors in title."

The application of this clause was altered from its evident intention in consequence of a judgment by the court of appeal in the case of *Adams vs. Dunseath*. If a tenant held one hundred acres of land at five shillings an acre, and by the expenditure of £100 (say in drainage, working, or the diversion of a stream) doubled the value of the holding, he would, in consequence of this decision, become entitled only to the interest on his expenditure (£100 at 5 per cent., say £5), while he should pay an increased rent of £20 to the landlord, who had never raised a finger or expended a penny in the business. This decision has dominated all transactions in relation to the administration of the acts. It appears all the more extraordinary when we consider the conditions of debate and procedure under which section 8 came to be placed upon the statute-book. When the bill went up to the Lords, the words "no rent shall be made payable under this act in respect of improvements made by the tenant or his predecessors in title" were struck out. A limitation, based upon the act of 1870, exactly corresponding to what in *Adams vs. Dunseath* was afterward declared to be the law, was rejected, on coming back to the House, by a majority of 134. Sir Stafford Northcote, the leader of the Opposition, proposed a further modification as to "enjoyment," which was rejected by a majority of 130—Mr. Gladstone using the following language:

"The doctrine accepted at the time of the Land Act of 1870, and which he certainly declined to accept the night before, was the doctrine that the enjoyment by the tenant for a certain time of his own improvements might have reimbursed him for the cost of these improvements, and by a natural process they passed over to the landlord. But that was not the basis on which they proceeded now, and there was no occasion for it. The tenant's improvements were the tenant's own property, and he would not admit the principle that the time during which he had enjoyed those improvements was any reason for their passing away from him."

On the previous day Mr. Gladstone had made this declaration:

"In the act of 1870 we did, in respect to the tenant, recognize the principle that he might be compensated by a reasonable lapse of time in respect of improvements he had made, and that the use and profit of these improvements for a certain time might be considered as compensation; but we do not recognize that principle in the present act. None of the enactments of the present bill are founded on that principle. . . . It is much better, I think, that those who make improvements should have the whole benefit of the improvements."

When the bill was again sent back to the upper house, the Lords inserted the words as to enjoyment proposed by Sir Stafford Northcote. The House of Commons again rejected them, this time by a majority of 128. The word "otherwise" was then inserted before "compensated," and the Lords subsequently agreed to the clause in the shape in which it now stands. We do not wonder that the committee should report:

"It cannot, therefore, be matter for surprise that the Irish tenantry should seek to secure that property in their improvements which Parliament unquestionably intended to declare to be their right. Even if the records of the two houses did not so unmistakably show the intentions of the Legislature, it is plain that it cannot equitably be argued that because certain improvements do not fulfil the technical legal conditions to entitle a tenant, on quitting his holding, to be compensated for them under the act of 1870, the landlord is entitled to charge rent on them to the sitting tenant under the act of 1881 as if the landlord had made them or had paid for them out of his own pocket. Yet the law has been ad-

ministered on this principle for thirteen years, and about 300,000 rents have been fixed, subsequent to the decision in *Adams vs. Dunseath*, which was delivered on February 28, 1882, six months after the passing of the act."

The land commissioners, however, went further even than the Court of Appeal. The latter, in giving judgment, especially declared that the tenant would be entitled not alone to his interest on his outlay, but to a proportion of the increased value attributable to his legal interest in the holding. Will it be believed that the land commissioners and land courts, while accepting as binding upon them the portion of the decision that limited the tenant's interest, set at naught the clause under which they were entitled to grant him a share of the increased value? The Court of Appeal gave its decision twelve years ago. From its empyrean height it has ever since until now (when one of its members was brought face to face with the present committee) calmly watched its judgment in the interest of the tenants set at naught. Would it have taken no means to draw the attention of the minor courts to their decision if they had neglected to apply that portion of their judgment which ran in the interest of the landlords? Little wonder that the committee express "extreme surprise" at the discovery of this state of the administration of the law.

"As to the interest of the tenant, which, according to the Court of Appeal, entitles him to a further share in the value of his improvements beyond the mere interest on his outlay, the evidence of these witnesses is plainly to the effect that what they understand by the interest of the tenant is simply a right to the percentage on his outlay upon improvements. This conclusion is confirmed by their testimony that they fix a fair rent to be paid by the present tenant at what a solvent tenant desiring to become a tenant of the holding could fairly pay from year to year. That is to say, they fix the rent at what might be paid by a person having no interest in the holding, and take no account in measuring the fair rent of the present tenant's statutory interest."

Thus, whether intentionally or otherwise, the Court of Appeal frustrated the intentions of Parliament, the land commissioners narrowed their judgment, and between the two the interests of the tenant have been neglected.

The committee further comes to the conclusion that the "rents fixed by the courts between 1881 and 1885 have been, since 1886, and are at the present time, materially excessive." The law costs are shown to be burdensome in the highest degree—in ordinary cases eating up fully one year's gain of all reductions effected, and in the instance of 21,847 rehearings and appeals resulting in an alteration of but £2,383 in a rental of £467,141, costing the parties at least the enormous sum of £250,000.

The Ulster tenant is still shown to enjoy material advantages over his fellows in other parts of Ireland. There, where free sale prevails, to the general exclusion of the landlord's right of preëmption, the average price of tenancies is shown to be 16.8 years' purchase, while in Leinster it is only 6.1 years' purchase, in Connaught 10.2, and in Munster 10.

Lawyers and the courts have so refined respecting "grass-lands," "town-parks," "demesnes," and "subletting," all of which are excluded from the benefits of the acts, that the Irish landowners are considerably bewildered and attorneys-at-law reap a rich harvest. The committee refer to the "microscopic nicety of judicial interpretation." Populations here of 800 or 600, then again of but 500 or even 360, are declared to constitute a town. The case of pasture holdings presented unexpected features. "If let to be used wholly or mainly for

pasture, exclusion takes place unless the tenant resides on the holding, or uses it with the holding on which he resides; but all pasture lettings are excluded, irrespective of residence, if the land is valued at or over £50." A tenant is excluded who by subletting is not technically in occupation at the date of serving the notice to fix a fair rent. "The construction of the exceptions, raising a number of intricate questions as to whether assent or acquiescence [on the part of the landlord] is consent, what constitutes 'triviality,' and so forth, has, in the opinion of your committee, operated harshly and excluded large numbers of tenants from the benefits of fair rent and security of tenure."

Legislation further securing to Irish tenants the benefits of their improvements, and clearing up legal technicalities, is declared necessary. It is recommended that the "judicial term" should be reduced from fifteen to ten years. The codification of the land laws is suggested, "in such language, form, and manner that the landlords and tenants in Ireland (or at least such of them as are reasonably educated) should, like the inhabitants of Continental Europe and America, be able, without professional assistance, to discover their respective rights and duties."

The revelations in this report are not likely in Ireland to conduce to increased confidence in the law, to steady progress and improvement, and to the quieting down of agitation. The country does not, however, appear to me in a mood, even considering the rejection of the Evicted Tenants' bill by the Lords, to enter upon a course of violent agitation such as supervened thirteen years ago, when the Compensation for Disturbance bill was thrown out by the same chamber. Nevertheless, apart from the question of home rule, there is less chance than ever of "the Irish sphinx gathering up her rags and departing" from Westminster. Government of a country through reliance upon the public opinion of its inhabitants is often discouraging, but the case of Ireland proves that at the worst it acts like the dew of heaven, compared to the hopeless, complicated, creaking combination of shifts and expedients that must be resorted to in the effort to rule satisfactorily without it.

D. B.

WOMEN STUDENTS AND WOMEN TEACHERS IN GERMANY.

BREMEN, September 3, 1894.

THE preparation of women for, rather than their admission to, the universities is at present the paramount question with all Germans who advocate the higher education of the sex. The universities have all along intrenched themselves in their refusal to admit women or to grant them degrees behind the fact that, having no gymnasias, women could not properly prepare for university study. This argument, the faculties' chief bulwark of defence, is now being met and undermined by the establishment of such gymnasias or classical preparatory schools. Three such schools are now well under way at Karlsruhe, Berlin, and Leipzig, respectively, and associations for the foundation of similar institutions are formed, or are forming, in other cities; that in Munich, the Verein zur Gründung eines Frauengymnasiums, counting among its most active members several of the university professors. The stress laid upon these preparatory schools by the universities is sufficient proof of their importance, and it is not too much to say that their inception marks an epoch in the education of women, for the opening of the univer-

sities must inevitably follow. Indeed, the executive committee of the Berlin Vereinigung zur Veranstaltung von Gymnasialkursen für Frauen (*Frauengymnasien*), whose chairman, Prince Heinrich zu Schoenaich-Carolath, is a member of the Reichstag, announces boldly that it can confidently assure graduates from such gymnasias of their admission to the philosophical and medical faculties of Prussian universities. The attitude of the universities is in truth less rigidly oppositional than at any previous time. The writer has succeeded in collecting some official proofs in support of this statement.

The new gymnasias owe their existence to associations, of women chiefly, though in every case men have been found who favored the project and were ready to help in the work. Karlsruhe was first in the field, its Mädchengymnasium, which was founded by the Verein Frauenbildung-Reform, having been opened with a small class in September, 1893. The course is for six years, the first year being preparatory, the other five covering the ground of the boys' gymnasium. Girls twelve years old and upwards may enter.

Berlin followed next, its Gymnasialkurse für Frauen, instituted by the local Verein already mentioned, opening in October, 1893, with a class of fourteen. The course here is much shorter—three to four years—and entering pupils must have reached their sixteenth, and are advised to wait till their eighteenth, year. They must, moreover, have graduated from a girls' high school, or pass an examination equivalent to the finals in such a one.

The Leipzig gymnasium, whose principal (*Direktorin*) is Fräulein Winscheid, who took her degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Heidelberg University, was founded by the Allgemeiner Deutscher Frauenverein, and began its work in April of this year with eleven students. The course is for four years, and pupils must have attained their sixteenth year.

These beginnings are all more or less experimental, and as to numbers small; but this must not be taken as the measure of the demand that has made them or as indicative of ultimate results. The price of this higher-grade instruction—at Karlsruhe 200, at Berlin 250, and at Leipzig 240 marks per annum—is necessarily comparatively high. Out-of-town pupils must, moreover, pay for board, which brings the costs up to 1,200 to 2,000 marks a year. Forty dollars to \$62, or \$800 to \$500, for such a purpose seems, indeed, to American ideas reasonable enough, but here in Germany values are different, and, too, custom has begot the habit of mind in those who pay, of regarding the girl's education as too unimportant to be paid for at the same rates as is the boy's. In the Landes-Ausschuss of the Reichslande recently, the sum of 1,600,000 marks was proposed and voted for boys' schools without debate, but when the next day the sum of 64,000 marks was proposed for girls' schools, there was fierce opposition, and the measure was not passed till the modest amount was diminished by 4,000 marks; a result which led State Secretary von Puttkamer to say that this evident tendency to restrict the education of women filled him with alarm, for that already in no civilized land was so little done for the education of women as in Germany. Such tendencies, and the greater requirements of the gymnasias themselves, the advanced and (for the German girl) new course of study, added to the fact that they carry her on through the years sixteen to twenty, when, according to all preconceived ideas here, she should be married or at

least "finished," are other elements that for some time will keep the attendance in those gymnasias limited to the few who *must* or *will* prepare themselves for higher intellectual work.

In all these schools the plan of study is modelled more or less on the regular boys' gymnasium. Greek, Latin, mathematics, German, English, French, philosophy, and the natural sciences—zoölogy and physics, or botany, or both—are taught. When the course is shortened, as at Leipzig and Berlin, from six to four or three years, the requirements for admission are greater. These gymnasias are, moreover, so far officially recognized as to have received from the respective educational authorities in whose domains they lie permission to exist; and there is little doubt that their graduates will be admitted by the same authorities to the *staatliche Maturitätsprüfung*, which tests the fitness of students to pursue their studies in the universities.

The universities stand at present on this subject of admitting women as follows: At Berlin no woman may study anything under any conditions whatever. "Negotiations to this effect [*i. e.*, the admission of women] are going on now," writes the secretary, "as they have been for years; but a favorable result, that is to say, for the women, is not likely to be reached very soon." The tone of the replies that the writer has received from the secretaries of the universities mentioned, the degree of politeness, and the form thereof, are so amusingly reflective of the attitude of their respective institutions to the question at issue, that it is a great pity lack of space prevents the quotation of them in full.

At Göttingen, women who can present a written certificate of fitness from a university teacher are admitted as *Zuhörerinnen* to any lectures for which they obtain the consent of the professor who delivers them. "However," adds the secretary, "a further improvement in these conditions is expected in the near future." He also adds, what is more important still: "After due attendance on lectures, admission to the doctor examination in general will not be difficult." This, as will be seen, is the most liberal condition of things obtaining at any German university.*

At Heidelberg, women may attend lectures in the scientific-mathematical faculty, but only as *Zuhörerinnen* and by permission of the professors concerned. They may also take the doctor's degree in this faculty, and, in special instances, in the philosophical faculty too; the condition in both cases being that the course of study leading up to the degree must be pursued at Heidelberg. The permission to attend confers no right to do so, however, and it may be withdrawn arbitrarily and at any time. The *Zuhörerin* has no rights.

At Leipzig, as heretofore, women may attend by permission many of the courses of lectures, but they may not take a degree, and they are in no case recognized as members of the university. The situation here is, in short, what it has been for many years.

At Jena similar conditions prevail, only here the required permission is still more difficult to obtain, application having to be made first, through the university *Curatel*, to the grand-ducal patron of the institution, and after that, in second instance, to the professor himself.

At Freiburg, women may attend as guests, *Hospitantinnen* (which is only another word for *Zuhörerinnen*), the lectures in the philosophical and medical faculties. This latter

*The writer has since learned that a woman is about to take the doctor examination at this university.

fact is especially noteworthy, for this university would seem to be the only one where women are admitted, unless very exceptionally, to the medical lectures.

Now it is the right to study medicine and to take the medical degree that, next after admission to the courses in philosophy, is most ardently desired and striven for by the women who are endeavoring to open the universities' closed doors. Indeed, so far their ambition does not seem to venture beyond the conquest of these two faculties. So urgent have their appeals become, however, within these lines, that the Hessian Landstände and the imperial Reichstag have had debates on the subject, and the Prussian Cultusministerium has asked the opinion of the various faculties as to the admission of women to the universities, especially to the medical lectures. The result of this inquiry has not been made public, but it probably was adverse, for the personal factor influences the opinion even of a German university professor, and the competition here in the learned professions is so great already that to increase it by admitting women to a share in it is the last thing the majority of those concerned will willingly consent to. Indeed, one such German remarked once frankly to the writer, that it was not a question of the right of women to, or their capacity for, higher study; it was a question of the struggle for existence, which was hard enough already without the admission to it of the rivalry of a whole sex. And this is undoubtedly the kernel of the whole contest here.

However, in spite of all opposition, the improvement in the position of German women, both as educated and as educators, has really set in, and the prospect is more encouraging for them than at any previous time. The new regulations as to girls' schools and the training and testing of women teachers (*Bestimmungen über das Mädchenschulwesen, die Lehrerinnenbildung und Lehrerinnenprüfungen von 31 Mai, 1894*) lately made public by the Prussian Cultusminister show that the educational authorities are at last aroused to the necessity of a change in this department of their charge. It is the Girls' High Schools (*Höhere Mädchenschule*) and the women teachers in them that are to profit by the new regulations. Heretofore the higher classes in these schools have been exclusively in the hands of men—women teachers, like women students, have been relegated to second place or to no place at all. None of the prizes of their profession have been open to them, even in the instruction of their own sex. In subordinate positions always, always proportionately underpaid, women teachers have had to contend with the hard and largely thankless task of breaking ground with the rudiments, for the more fortunate male teacher to sow the seed. Now, however, one at least of the three upper classes in the girls' high schools is to be in the charge of a woman teacher; and where the principal is a man—which is generally the case—he is to have a woman as associate principal beside him. Women teachers are also to be employed more generally throughout all the classes. Along with these larger opportunities thus opened to them are greater requirements from them. Women teachers wishing to attain these higher positions must pass a more rigid, more extensive, and more scientific examination, the conditions of which are given in the pamphlet cited above.

This advance in their status as teachers is as important in its way for the women of Germany as is the opening of the girls' gymnasia. In these schools, too, the teaching is at present

almost exclusively done by men. Latin, Greek, mathematics, and the sciences are still a masculine monopoly. But with the graduation of the first class from one of these new institutions, this will have ceased to be, and the German woman will be armed at last with what by their own confession the universities must accept as the open sesame to their doors.

J. B. S.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' fall announcements embrace Mr. John Codman Ropes's 'Story of the Civil War, 1861-65,' in three parts, with maps and battle-plans; 'The Southern States of the American Union, considered in their relations to the Constitution of the United States and to the resulting Union,' by J. L. M. Curry; 'American Songs,' a collection of representative poems, with analytical and critical studies of their writers, edited by A. B. Simonds; continuations of Conway's edition of Paine's writings, of Ford's edition of Jefferson's, and of King's of Rufus King's; the third volume of Theodore Roosevelt's 'Winning of the West,' 1784-1790, the founding of the trans-Allegheny commonwealths; the third of Traill's 'Social England'; 'Prince Henry the Navigator,' by C. R. Beazley; 'The Egyptian Book of the Dead,' edited by Charles H. S. Davis, M.D., with a complete translation and numerous illustrations from the papyri; 'Rhythm and Harmony in Poetry and Music,' by George L. Raymond; and sumptuous holiday editions of Irving's 'Sketch-Book,' Walpole's 'Memoirs of the Reign of George III.,' and De Amicis's 'Holland and Its People' and 'Spain and the Spaniards.'

Dodd, Mead & Co. will reprint Mrs. Trollope's 'Domestic Manners of the Americans,' in two volumes, from the first edition of 1832, with twenty-four illustrations from contemporary drawings. They will also publish 'The Empress Eugénie,' the first volume in Pierre de Lano's 'Secret of an Empire.'

Dr. Birkbeck Hill's essay on Harvard College, which has grown into a book, will appear through Macmillan in the course of another month or two.

Hunt & Eaton have in preparation 'Travels in Three Continents,' by the Rev. J. M. Buckley.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'City Government in the United States,' by Alfred R. Conkling. Other fall publications of this house will be G. Maspero's 'Dawn of Civilization'; Lombroso's 'Criminal Woman'; Ferri's 'Criminal Sociology'; Max Nordau's 'Degeneracy'; Quatrefages's 'The Pygmies'; 'The Warfare of Science,' by Andrew D. White; 'Discourses,' by Prof. Huxley, who also furnishes an introduction to a 'Life of Sir Richard Owen'; 'Education of the Greek People,' by Thomas Davidson; 'Evolution of the Public School System in Massachusetts'; the fourth volume of Prof. McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States,' and the second of Maclay's 'History of the United States Navy'; 'General Hancock,' by Gen. Francis A. Walker; 'Our Presidents,' an illustrated work of which John Fiske, Carl Schurz, W. W. Phelps, and others furnish the text; and 'Schools and Masters of Sculpture,' by Miss A. G. Radcliffe, likewise illustrated.

The Leipzig publisher F. A. Brockhaus announces an 'Allgemeine Geschichte der Philosophie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Religion,' by Dr. Paul Deussen, professor in

the University of Kiel and author of various studies of the 'Vedanta.' The work will be issued in two volumes, of which the first will treat of "East Asiatic Philosophy," including Indian, Chinese, and Japanese systems of thought, and the second will comprise the speculations of Greece, Egypt, Persia, Judea, Alexandria, mediæval and modern Europe, and be entitled "West Asiatic and European Philosophy."

'Die Huldar Saga,' by Konrad Maurer, a reprint from the Proceedings of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences, is an admirable and exhaustive study of one of the latest and perhaps least important of the Icelandic sagas. Prof. Maurer's researches as to the origin, age, and value of this apocryphal work lead to some interesting observations on the peculiar literary condition of Iceland at the present day, as manifested in the still vigorous vitality and often too exuberant growth of the saga.

The Icelandic *Althing*, by the way, has under consideration a bill which, if adopted, will give to Iceland her first railway. The enterprise, which is under the direction of an English syndicate, contemplates a line from Reykjavik, to extend about fifty miles. Trains are to be run six times a week during the summer months, and during the winter at as regular intervals as the weather permits. In return for this service the Government is asked for an annual subsidy of 50,000 kroner (say \$14,000) for a period of thirty years. The same company offers to furnish regular steamship service between England and Reykjavik throughout the year. Heretofore Iceland has been practically cut off from the outer world for six months each year.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' for 1894 responds to the current demand for full statistics of investment properties, and contains numerous valuable additions to its usual list of corporations. Its statistics of street and electric railway companies, introduced this year for the first time, are in many respects the most complete and satisfactory yet compiled. Investors are similarly favored by an appendix dealing with miscellaneous and "industrial" corporations and with the public debts of States, cities, and counties. These additions help to keep the 'Manual' what it has so long been, the most indispensable among investment handbooks. Its chief defects are a very inconvenient arrangement and indexing, and it would seem possible that both these could be remedied.

Mr. Edward McPherson pays tribute once more to the wretched memory of the American people, and to our politics without continuity because without principle, in his 'Handbook of Politics,' for 1894 (Washington: Robert Beal). It is, as he says, with a pardonable insinuation of failure, "very largely a record of the efforts of the Democratic party, which was given full control of the legislative and executive branches of the Government in 1892, to grapple with the financial and political situation of the country." But Mr. McPherson's partisanship goes no further than to saddle the Democratic party with the sins of its "doughfaces." He faithfully records the documents in the case of the Tariff, the Silver bill, the repeal of the Federal Elections act, the Hawaiian fiasco (as to annexation) and success (as to letting those who had made their bed lie in it), and finally the railway adventure of Debs. For ready reference this work is, like its forerunners, invaluable.

The Public Printer at Washington has lately invoked the protection of the Secretary of the Interior against bad "copy" and other extravagant indulgences of officials ignorant of or

indifferent to printing-house economy. He insists, rightly enough, that copy should be edited, and generally type-written, before it is sent in to him, that proofs should be promptly returned, and expensive corrections avoided, etc. Secretary Smith has, of course, given instructions in this sense to his subordinates, but Mr. Benedict might almost be suspected of a satirical object-lesson in printing the order with all its rhetorical and grammatical defects, even to the faulty punctuation which he could certainly have amended without offence to his chief. However, in this particular his own letter leaves much to be desired.

The reprints of the week have included two standard works in substantial single volumes finely illustrated, Whymper's 'Travels among the Great Andes of the Equator' (Scribners), and, by way of contrast, Greely's 'Three Years of Arctic Service' (same publishers). Each has its index and its maps, and each its peculiar charm as a narrative of adventure. One is glad to have, also, 'Quits,' by the late Baroness Tautpoeus, honored with the comely dress already given by Messrs. Putnam to 'The Initials'; being, like that, in two handy volumes in olive-green bindings. With vol. xxv: the Dryburgh edition of the Waverley novels comes to a close (Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). 'The Surgeon's Daughter' and 'Castle Dangerous' form the contents of it, and some of Mr. Walter Paget's designs are among the very best of the diversified array of woodcuts. It is, however, the letterpress which gives distinction to this edition, taken in connection with its cheapness.

From the Board of Trustees of the Missouri Botanical Garden comes their fifth annual report. Of the eight scientific papers, the third is on the sugar maples, and is from the pen of the director, Prof. Trelease. He enters into an interesting discussion of the botanical names of the sugar maples, and comes to a somewhat different conclusion from that of Prof. Sargent. Rather reluctantly, it appears, he abandons the name *Acer saccharinum* to the silver maple, but finds the name *Acer saccharum* available for the tree which is commonly called sugar maple in the Northern States. The tree of the Carolinas and Florida is here *A. floridanum*, while the third of the sugar maples is *A. grandidentatum*, ranging from Montana to Mexico. With Sargent these are all reduced to *A. barbatum*. This name, which Torrey and Gray say was founded on the flowers of one maple, the fruit of another, and the leaf of a third ('Flora of North America,' p. 684), and which therefore should have no recognition of any kind, Trelease is content to use for a variety of *Acer saccharum*, the other variety keeping the old name of *nigrum*. The volume contains also a careful monograph on the genera *Gayophytum* and *Boisduvalia*, by Prof. Trelease; a paper on willows, by Dr. Glatfelter, who proposes to distinguish the North American species by minute differences in the venation of the leaves; and a table giving the earliest and latest dates in 1892 of the leafing, flowering, and fruiting of three or four hundred plants, and a similar, though much shorter, list for 1893. There are a few other papers besides these, and the volume closes with some "Notes and Observations" by the director.

In volume xxii., part 1, of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, Mr. Percival Lowell contributes another paper on Esoteric Shinto. He dwells especially upon the phenomena of god-possession, which, though now nearly monopolized by Riyobu,

or the union of the native and imported cults, is essentially of indigenous origin. Mr. W. G. Aston (though in England, and dying by inches from the cold caught in Seoul during the night of the awful Korean riots in 1884) still contributes profound critical studies. He shows the origin of the *hi no maru* (sun-circle), or national flag of Japan, tracing it to primitive Chinese animism. As China was and is a theocracy, natural calamities such as drought, famine, pestilence, earthquake, and damage by lightning are owing to the Emperor's shortcomings, while good crops, animal and terrestrial prosperity and freedom from calamity spring directly from his faithfulness in function. He is, therefore, the Son of Heaven. The sun symbolizes the sovereign ruler, and the moon is the emblem of his consorts and ministers. Hence from very ancient times and with variation of artistic representation, the Chinese banners have borne the image of the sun and moon. Japan over a thousand years ago borrowed the same symbols, and on coins and flags they may be seen to-day. The fact that two suns cannot shine in the same heaven is the root of old bitterness as well as the present war between Tei Koku Nippon (Japan, the country ruled by a theocratic dynasty) and the Ta Tsing empire. Mediæval Japanese flags also contained the same elements and symbols as the Korean national flag of to-day, first adopted and saluted by foreign powder in 1882. Mr. E. H. Parker gives a valuable account of Japan up to A. D. 1200, translated from the mediæval Chinese writer, Ma Twan-Lin. He concludes that the account in the 'Kojiki,' or most ancient book of Japan, of the "divine generations" of the Mikado, "is not only pure twaddle, but is not even consistent twaddle." Prof. Garrett Droppers's paper on a Japanese credit association has been already noticed in our columns.

Signor Nino Quarta's "new interpretation" of Petrarca's canzone, "Chiare, fresche e dolci acque" (Naples), probably has the last word in the long controversy concerning this poem. His pamphlet of eighty-two pages is an astonishing mixture of erudition, keen analysis, humor, and loquacity. One thinks of the Corliss engine made to beat up a batter. Incidentally, however, the triviality of the discussion is relieved by the fresh and important evidence which Signor Quarta adduces to prove Laura's birthplace, and summering-place as well, to have been some village between *Vauchuse* and *Avignon*. If justified (and it is made very plausible), this propinquity, hitherto unsuspected, between the poet and his innamorata, throws a new and strong light upon the canzone, especially upon the earlier ones. Sites and scenes supposed to lie in dreamland, or at least in a merely conventional landscape, take on now a local habitation and a name.

—The current number of the *American Journal of Archaeology* contains a study, by Prof. Marquand, of a terracotta sketch which represents a portion of the second of Ghiberti's bronze gates for the Baptistery of Florence. Mr. Marquand states his reasons for supposing this to be a preliminary sketch in clay made by Ghiberti's own hand. It is somewhat larger than the original portion of the gate, and the modelling bespeaks the sculptor rather than the painter. An excellent photograph accompanies the study. The remaining illustrations of the number reproduce the beautiful votive-relief discovered in 1893, not far from Phaleron, representing on one side Hermes and the nymphs, and on the other Basile and Echelos borne in a chariot. The meaning and de-

tails are discussed by Mr. Crosby. Mr. A. L. Frothingham, jr., furnishes a note, with plan, on a curious dome-like tomb discovered at Vetulonia by Cav. Falchi. It differs from the Mycenaean tombs in that the ground-plan is square, and that the walls remain exactly vertical till they reach the base of the dome. It is the forerunner of Byzantine domes on pendentives, just as the Mycenaean tomb is the prototype of the Pantheon. Possibly, Mr. Frothingham suggests, its plan may have been derived from similar but more scientific structures in Assyria. The summary of archaeological news has always constituted a special and valuable feature of this periodical, and the present number contains more than a hundred pages of reports from all quarters of the Eastern world.

—If the first volume of the 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnam's) is a promise of what is to come, the series will prove a remarkable addition to American political history. The editing of the papers was begun by Dr. Charles King, a son of Rufus King, and has been completed by Dr. Charles R. King, a grandson. This has resulted in a double advantage: contemporaries could be consulted, and the results of modern research examined. The period covered by this first volume is from 1755 to 1794, but King's public activity was not marked until his election from Massachusetts to the Continental Congress in 1784. He served continuously in that body till the Constitution was framed, was a member of the convention framing it, and was one of the first Senators from New York. The history of this critical period is told in his correspondence as it has not been told before. Questions of land cessions, of Western Territories and their government, of impost, of constitution, and of administrative and foreign policy, under Washington—in all, King's agency was immediate; and on all, his notes and letters are interesting and valuable. The editors lay too much claim for him in respect to the Ordinance of 1787, and their statement cannot be accepted as final. King was, in the beginning of his Congressional service, something of an extremist, following the lead of Gerry, a man who was singularly gifted in conjuring up remarkable possibilities, and living, as it were, in a sort of chamber of "political horrors." For example, King saw danger in the appointment of Bishop Seabury, as he thought he would be a channel of improper information to his spiritual head, the King of England. It was the same spirit that led him to disapprove of the Annapolis Convention, believing that relief should come from Congress.

—In time his political beliefs underwent a change, and he became a Federalist, undoubtedly in consequence of his associating with the business men of New York. This influence makes his correspondence of high value, as the newly-formed Administration had to cope with many business questions: taxation, funding, tariff, navigation law, and sale of lands. Even its foreign policy was colored by this element, for the unsolved questions with England which led to the Jay mission, and the difficulties with France, were felt more immediately in commercial than in political circles. King left many notes on these current events, which supplement Madison's 'Debates' and Maclay's 'Journal'; and there is also so much of novelty that we cannot begin to make extracts. Into this good not a few avoidable errors and omissions have crept. The omissions in the incomplete letters on pages 317 and 417

could easily have been repaired, and what is omitted from the letter to Madison is of high importance. Import is printed on p. 74 for impost; but this error is balanced on p. 77, where impost is printed for import. The Madison letter on p. 358 was written in 1788, and not 1789. The editor might have inserted full names in brackets, where the MS. gives only the initial letter. What were "dry" taxes (p. 260)? King must have erred in recording any coolness between Washington and Robert Morris (p. 622). The two men were intimate until Morris's failure; and it is hardly conceivable that Morris could have plotted against the General in 1783, in favor of so discredited an officer as Gates. Besides, the presence of so warm a partisan of Washington as Gouverneur Morris in the Office of Finance would have been a check on such an attempt. The story is highly improbable.

—There is danger that he who reads running may apply the old saw about the μέγα βιβλίον to Dr. Gudeman's edition of the *Dialogus* of Tacitus (Boston: Ginn & Co.), but he who ponders over it in his closet will surely prefer Scaliger's *not* on Casaubon's Persius. More than five hundred pages of introduction and commentary to only fifty-five of the Latin text is indeed startling; and yet so thoroughly well has the work been done, so carefully has the editor studied the questions by which the little tract is beset, and so clearly and independently has he set forth his conclusions, that we are almost ready to believe that a κτήμα ἐς αἰεὶ has at last been obtained in the case of one at least of the Latin classics. Dr. Gudeman is convinced of the Tacitean authorship of the work, and he adds new and strong arguments to the old stock. His critical apparatus in its fulness recalls Wecklein's to Aeschylus; the bulk of his commentary is in great part accounted for by the fact that he has quoted the most important parallel passages in full, instead of merely giving references to the authors cited. Those who still preserve the traditional reverence for Class A B of the manuscripts must in future reckon with Dr. Gudeman's strong claim for class Y if their favorite is still to bear the palm. On the whole, the contents of the book are a credit to American scholarship, and its outer dress calls for thanks to the American publishers.

—The recently expressed intention of the German Government to establish a Catholic Faculty of Theology in the University of Strassburg has unexpectedly met with very general and quite bitter opposition on the part of the Catholic press in Germany. The same attitude was taken by the Catholic Congress held at Cologne during the last week of August. This assembly, which realized Carlyle's conception of an "eloquent palaver," after passing the usual reactionary resolutions in favor of the restoration of the temporal power of the Pope, the readmission of the Jesuits to Germany, and the ecclesiastical control of the public schools, demanded that a university should be founded at Fulda independent of the State, approved by the Holy See and directed by the Catholic bishops of Germany. Of course such an institution would be nothing but a theological seminary of an extremely narrow type, in which secular science would be tolerated only as the handmaid to scholastic divinity and Jesuitical casuistry. The students would thus be completely cut off from the fresh and abundant sources of modern academic culture. The disastrous effects of this educational isolation have been

clearly and forcibly exposed by some of the most liberal and enlightened Catholics, as, for example, by Dr. Franz Kraus, Professor of Church History and Christian Archaeology in the University of Freiburg, and Dr. Heinrich Reusch, Professor of Theology in the University of Bonn. The former, in an address delivered as rector of the University, in 1890, on "The Study of Theology in the Past and Present," declares that the severance of the study of theology from the old universities by the establishment of separate seminaries would be "a death-blow to the Catholic Church in Germany," and that those who advocate such a measure, thinking it to be a meritorious work, are really "the worst foes of Catholicism." In a little volume, issued in 1879, and entitled 'Die deutschen Bischöfe und der Aberglaube,' Prof. Reusch states that since the middle of the present century there has been a vast increase of "this literature of superstition" within the Catholic Church, and that this almost incredible and exceedingly noxious growth has attained its present dimensions under the fostering care of the bishops and other clergy.

—That this lamentable condition of things has not changed for the better during the past fifteen years is proved by the appearance of Dr. Theobald Bischofberger's manual called 'Die Verwaltung des Exorcistats nach Massgabe des römischen Benediktionale,' of which a second enlarged and revised edition was published by Roth at Stuttgart in 1893. Herr Bischofberger is a priest who evidently prides himself on his powers as an exorcist, and relates with equal unction and assurance his experiences in casting out devils, some of which are quite worthy of an African conjurer. There is hardly any affliction of mankind in mind, body, or estate in which he does not detect diabolical agencies, from national disasters like the spread of malignant epidemics to petty domestic annoyances like the uncanny abduction of cow's milk and the mysterious disappearance of hen's eggs. He also affirms that a spot where a murder or other heinous crime has been committed, if the offence remains undetected or unexpiated, is sure to be infested by demons, and the inmates of a house erected upon such a site will be peculiarly liable to demoniacal possession, however innocent they may be personally. Dr. Bischofberger goes so far as to advise the purchaser of a piece of land to make sure that it is unencumbered by devils as well as by debts, otherwise he may have to suffer more from a demoniac lien than from mortmain or any other kind of obligation in law.

—The sudden failure of the Peary and Wellman expeditions, and seemingly also that of the Jackson-Harmsworth venture to Franz-Joseph Land, once more emphasize the uncertainties which attach to the exploration of the northern ice-fields. Mr. Peary, untrammelled by Government orders, and with a free foot to choose his own route and methods, returns to his winter quarters on Bowdoin Bay, Inglefield Gulf, having accomplished practically nothing. Exceptional arctic weather was doubtless the main cause of this, but something is perhaps attributable to a departure from the fundamental plan of travel which Mr. Peary himself so strongly argued was necessary for success in an expedition of the kind which he conducted. In his memorable crossing of Greenland in 1892 he was accompanied by but a single associate; in his last effort he had with him seven companions, the greater number of

whom were incapacitated in the early stages of their journey. True, the atmospheric conditions were very different from what they were in 1892—a difference that can be easily read on the scale of arctic weather which measures the interval between March 6 and May 1, the respective days of starting of the two expeditions. A winter of seemingly unusual severity still held a firm grip upon nature when the party set out, and from first to last it appears to have been an almost continuous struggle with the furious elements. With a temperature reduced to —50° or even to —60° F., and with a wind blowing with hurricane velocity, with the dogs dying one after the other, "frozen into solid blocks," as they are said to have been, it is surprising that a distance of 120 miles should have been covered. Arctic critics may contend that no start should have been made till the weather was settled. The answer to this is, that without this early start, in the hope of reaching Independence Bay on the northeast coast, nothing looking to an extensive exploration beyond Greenland could be accomplished. The disastrous termination of the Wellman expedition (for such, indeed, the crushing by ice of the *Ragnvald Jarl* must be considered) can hardly be charged to the commander. It was after he and his thirteen associates were well on their way, and struggling with the great northern "pack," that the mishap occurred. Like Mr. Peary, Mr. Wellman has expressed his determination to try again.

GUMMERE'S OLD ENGLISH BALLADS.

Old English Ballads, selected and edited by Francis B. Gummere, Professor of English in Haverford College. [Athenæum Press Series.] Boston: Ginn & Co. 1894.

FORTUNATELY it is no longer necessary to plead the cause of the popular ballad. Everybody admits its value as literature, and every student of life or letters or language feels the necessity of occupying himself with it. There are no better ballads preserved than the English (i. e., the English and Scottish), and the ballads of no other people have been studied with more enthusiasm or with so much success. The acknowledged master in this field of investigation, Professor Child, has edited the ballads of our tongue with a wealth of learning and a humanity of taste which make his noble series of volumes (now nearly completed) one of the chief glories of American scholarship. Professor Gummere has seen the necessity of making the best of our ballads accessible in a single volume, with due apparatus, and he has carried out his project with complete success.

Drawing chiefly on Professor Child's great work, to which fitting acknowledgment is made, he has selected fifty-four of the best English and Scottish ballads.

"In most instances the editor has selected what seemed to be the best text, although in one or two cases the best had to yield to the suitable. A few omissions were necessary; here and there, but not very often, combinations were made of different texts; and some unimportant substitution of words was allowed as between version and version."

This method, impossible in editing the poetry of art, gives us texts quite as stable as we can expect the text of a traditional ballad to be. No other plan was possible in a selection; for variant versions the student will naturally consult Prof. Child. The difference between this plan and the eclectic method pursued, for example, by Allingham in his well-known 'Ballad Book' is clear. Allingham's texts

represent his own opinions and are not usable by serious students; Prof. Gummere's texts represent tradition, and are not only readable, but available for scientific study.

The selection includes the long "Gest of Robin Hood," "Otterburn," "The Hunting of the Cheviot (Chevy Chase)," "Sir Andrew Barton," "Sir Patrick Spens," "Child Maurice," "Child Waters," "King Estmere," "The Wife of Usher's Well," "St. Stephen and Herod," "Tam Lin," etc., and could not be bettered. The three hundred pages of text contain a series of ballads sufficiently varied and extensive to give a view of the field not merely of English traditional narrative verse, but of the characteristics of the ballad poetry of all lands.

The glossary is brief, but sufficient for the practical purpose for which it is intended; still, we think it would have been better to give more references. Most of the really interesting or exceptional usages have, however, a citation. The notes are full enough to explain the difficult passages and to illustrate the main points needing illustration. Of course they are much indebted to Prof. Child. Nobody can say anything about ballads without referring to him constantly; and the spirit of Prof. Gummere's dedication is as far as possible removed from any wish to conceal obligations. His whole book, in fact, is the best possible introduction to the great Corpus, and ought to lead many persons to a study of that enchanting work. The various appendixes give handy information, in the briefest shape, about ballad bibliography, metre, style and form, verse, minstrels. They supplement the notes, and contain a number of excellent original observations; but they more especially serve as excursions to the introduction.

This introduction is indeed Professor Gummere's chief contribution to the subject. It is about one hundred pages long, and is abundantly supplied with footnotes which testify to wide and accurate scholarship. It is written with much charm of manner, and has that indefinable quality which we are accustomed to call "brightness" ("brilliance" implies too hard and glittering a finish). Many scholars of the younger generation show a disregard of literary form—be it ignorance or contempt; but our author is not of them. His style is easy, without being careless; it is often allusive; it has not a few quips and here and there a crank; but it is not affected and it never loses control of itself, never quite throws its wig at the congregation. In its effect we have found it stimulating; and it bears the test of a second and third perusal.

The introduction attends first to defining. The ambiguity of *ballad*, *popular*, *Völkstied*, etc., drives the author to the adoption of a new technical term—"communal": "A communal ballad is a narrative ballad of tradition which represents a community or folk, not a section or class of that community and not a single writer." The ballad is the "outcome and expression of a whole community," and "this community must be homogeneous—must belong to a time when, in a common atmosphere of ignorance, so far as book-lore is concerned, one habit of thought and one standard of action animate every member, from prince to ploughboy." "Ballads of the primitive type . . . were the product of a people as yet undivided into a lettered and an unlettered class." These definitions afford pretty sure ground for the difficult investigation that is to follow—that of the genesis of the ballad. This is an investigation which Prof. Gummere was particularly well qualified to pursue. His spe-

cial studies, begun in his dissertation on the Anglo-Saxon metaphor, continued in his standard work on 'Germanic Origins,' and in a less-known but suggestive and stimulating little essay on myths, contributed to the "Haverford Studies," are now carried over to the subject of popular narrative poetry.

As was to be expected, the method of the introduction is scientific. The author shows competent knowledge of what others have done in his field, but he does not for a moment allow his independence of thought to be confined. On the matter in hand there are two main opinions before the world. The view fostered by the Romantic school, and fallen into discredit with the gradual discrediting of the theories and ideals of Romanticism, is "that the community, as a whole and a unit, makes poetry of the people." The other view, seemingly more rational and certainly more in favor just now, is that "poetry of the people is made as any other poetry is made, except that it is subject to purely oral transmission, and therefore to infinite variation and the chances of popular control."

Prof. Gummere obviously leans toward the former of these theories; but he does not disguise from himself or his readers the difficulty of apprehending it or even of stating it intelligibly. His good sense revolts from answering in vague phrases or mere figures of speech, as has so often been done, the searching question: "How does a song cross the gulf between this spirit of the race, this latent community of sentiment, and the concrete fact of melody and words?" He therefore finds it necessary to review the whole history of ballad criticism, especially in this article of origins. The necessity was a fortunate one. No such account of this interesting and important subject is to be found in any language, so far as we know. It is thorough and impartial, and enlivened throughout by pertinent and vivacious critical remarks. We should hardly have believed it possible to sum up so clearly the confused, half-poetical, half-mystical, wholly evasive attempts of the Romantic school to express itself as to how "the folk" once upon a time composed poetry. The "mystery" is not explained, for it is not explainable; but the bounds of the Land of Nod are surveyed with all possible exactness. The non-Romantic or rationalizing theory is really "an identification of the origins of the ballad with the origins of poetry as a thing of literature, barring the facts of environment at the outset and oral tradition in reaching a later public. In both cases the artist is a final cause." This view, which at first seems so simple, appears to Prof. Gummere to involve a perilous logical leap, and he calls a halt until one can examine the "essential elements of the ballad as it must have been at its best."

It may be admitted that every extant ballad owes its actual form to some individual singer, who stands between us and the assumed primitive singing community; but this admission, contends Prof. Gummere, does not solve the problem of ultimate origins any more than the agency of Wilhelm Grimm in giving to the 'Kinder- und Hausmärchen' their literary form explains the origin of popular tales. The ballads that have come down to us are not, as they stand, the pure product of communal authorship; they are rather the survivals of the old state of things, or, in some cases, the result of a survival of the old spirit working under changed conditions. They contain elements which distinguish them from the poetry of the schools. Above all they contain an element of impersonality, so far as authorship

goes; they have no author's "I" or editor's "we." The critic "must detach from the ballad, which is a compromise between tradition and art, all those elements in which art and the individual can have no share, and must inquire whether the balance for communal force can be explained on the simple basis of oral transmission." The condition of our material makes certainty unattainable. For example, no Anglo-Saxon ballads have survived. We must resort to combination and inference. The singing of ballads, the dance, the refrain; the observed phenomenon of rapid improvisation by members of a throng—such are the "elements" which, in Prof. Gummere's opinion, make for the communal origin of popular narrative poetry and make against the rationalistic theory of its individual authorship. The primitive connection between song and dance and the very early association of ballads with the dance-song are indisputable. To be sure, one must reckon with the leader—the *Vorsinger*—but the further back we get, the more shadowy he becomes, so that it is not absurd to infer, for primitive conditions, a communal song and dance with no definite leader. The refrain, too, which is beyond a doubt the property of the throng, is the oldest element in the dance song and in the ballad; it grows less and less important as the leader comes more and more into prominence, until finally it disappears altogether when the ballad ceases to be used for the dance and loses its obviously communal character.

These facts, taken in connection with the well-known improvisational powers of many unlettered communities, seem to Prof. Gummere sufficient to create a strong probability in favor of a strictly communal origin for ballad-poetry. As primitive men "knew neither writer nor writing, so they knew nothing of the literary unit, the poem in and for itself. All was in flux; out of a common store of tradition, by a spontaneous and universal movement, song rose and fell according to the needs of the community." The individual minstrel comes later. He "is an agent at once of preservation and of destruction, for he rescues specimens of a type which his incipient artistry is bound to destroy."

Our brief summary of Prof. Gummere's Introduction is hardly fair either to the closeness of his argument or to the literary merit of the whole essay. Still, we have doubtless said enough to give our readers some hint of the interest that attaches to this scholarly book.

TEXT-BOOKS OF UNITED STATES HISTORY.

A History of the United States for Schools. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

A History of the United States. By Allen C. Thomas, Professor of History in Haverford College, Pa. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1894.

SCARCELY a year passes without some new attempt to recount our national history for the young. Half-a-dozen such lie before us, which date at furthest back to 1890, and Professor Goldwin Smith's brilliant sketch might, from its mere size, be added to the list for this period, which embraces the names of the late Prof. Alexander Johnston and now of Mr. John Fiske. No school history of American origin has yet become a classic, and while intelligent teachers will welcome and profit by both of the two latest, whose titles we give above, neither of them is, in our judgment, so much

better than its predecessors as to be likely to stem the flood of composition and competition. One had a right to expect much from Mr. Fiske's well-known faculty for luminous exposition, though his powers of condensation had perhaps hardly been tested. As an apostle of evolution, too, he might have been counted on to exhibit in a masterly manner the organic growth of American institutions. He assures us, in fact, in his preface, that he has "aimed, above all things, at telling the story in such a way as to make it clear how one event led to another."

Now what is the greatest single event in the one hundred and five years of the republic's existence? Undeniably the civil war. When did it end? Some will answer literally, in 1865, with the surrender of Lee; others, in 1877, when President Hayes withdrew the Federal troops from the support of the carpet-bag governments; others, in 1894, when the war-tariff policy was reversed as far as was possible in view of the pension burden. When did it begin? Some will say in 1861, with the firing upon Sumter; others, in 1860, with the secession of South Carolina; others, in 1859, with John Brown at Harper's Ferry; others, in 1854, with the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill; others, in 1850, with the passage of the Fugitive Slave bill. For forty-four years, then, at the very least, the conflict of the two sections and the consequences thereof have occupied public attention without intermission. But what is the genesis of the Fugitive Slave law? Every one knows that its foundations, as of all the events enumerated, were laid in the compromises of the Federal Constitution—Lincoln's "house divided against itself," Seward's "irrepressible conflict." The historian, therefore, has one thread running down the woof from the beginning, of vital interest at the present moment, by which the child's mind can naturally and easily be led back in a causal connection. No other thread of equal antiquity is so distinct, none possesses anything like its importance. Not one of the group of American historians above enumerated has firmly grasped this thread, and Mr. Fiske is even conspicuously inferior to several of them in his attempt "to make it clear how one event led to another." Slavery is to him actually a "new question" in 1820. In the nine lines which summarize the Constitution of '89 there is not a word respecting slavery or compromises, and in fact Prof. Thomas alone, of our six authors, takes notice of the clause tolerating the slave trade, or of that which provided for slave representation—the national political premium on the perpetuity of a system which economically was always committing suicide.

Suppose a bright lad reads, in the daily press, of Miss Wells's recent mission to England to enlist foreign public sentiment against the horrible lynchings to which her race is subjected in the Southern States, and by contagion even in the Northern. What is there in Mr. Fiske's narrative to show him the connection between these atrocities and the defunct system of slavery? Nothing, for there is nowhere any description of American slavery—not an anecdote from which the child's imagination might glimpse the truth: the burning alive of slave men and women in Massachusetts, burnings in New York, in New Jersey, in all the Southern slave States, still continued upon the freedmen and justified by current Southern public opinion, ecclesiastical as well as vulgar. Prof. Johnston does mention the New York colonial holocaust, and has a phrase about "the cruelty of the system." He also touches fairly upon the race question. He records, too, the abolition of the foreign slave

trade, but without remarking the sanction given to it by the Constitution, or picturing the infernal traffic, about which our bright lad might have read in a recent magazine.

It must be a false motive in an historian to cover up what is barbarous in the nation's history; and what, above all, should our Evolutionist be doing in that gallery? The offence becomes grave when we recall the complaint of the lack of moral instruction in our schools, and consider that history is one of the most potent vehicles of such instruction. Prof. Fiske errs with Prof. Johnston in narrating the Mexican war without an allusion to its pro-slavery inspiration. This is virtually, of course, to put that war on a level of glory with the Revolution and the war of 1812, and the child reads of its victories with the same pride as of Trenton or Lake Erie. He sees "the flag" and nothing else, and imbibes unconsciously the immoral precepts of that day: "Our country however bounded," "Our country, right or wrong." Under such circumstances the national conscience must perforce be neglected by our school historians. Few mention the abolition movement, as none truly defines its principles; few give it its chronological place, with its philanthropic pedigree. Mr. Fiske picks it up in 1837, and implies that then "the little band of abolitionists began an agitation which they were determined should not stop so long as slavery endured." Not a word of Lundy and his *Gentus of Universal Emancipation*, but the trumpety Lundy's Lane is itemized in this, and in nearly all our six histories. Not a word, except in Johnston and Thomas, about the mobs directed against the abolitionists, and Thomas alone commemorates Lovejoy. Not a word about the service rendered the cause of free speech in this country by the Alton martyr and the abolitionists. Must the child go, for this to the Life of Channing? Can one infer the wave of feeling caused by Brooks's assault on Sumner in the Senate chamber from Johnston's "cruelly beaten [where?] by a South Carolina Representative," or Fiske's "atrocious and cowardly act" occasioned by "a speech of an exasperating character, containing some personal allusions . . . which were not in good taste"? Not a syllable in any of the six about the significance of the outrage in having been perpetrated where it was, by a fellow-Congressman, for words spoken in debate; the Senate as a body consenting; and Brooks's constituency reelecting him! Thomas gives in an appendix Lincoln's immortal second inaugural address; Mrs. Barnes, who quotes from the Declaration of Sentiments of the American Anti-Slavery Society, also gives a portion of John Brown's immortal address to the court. What would happen to the child's moral sense if the whole of the latter were printed by Fiske, in silent comment on his text: "He [John Brown] was, of course, captured and hanged: His attempt was an insane piece of folly, and found but little sympathy or approval in the North"? True, but is the "of course" the chronicler's or the moralist's? And if there was little sympathy at the North for the attempt, was there no sympathy for the man? Did the Northern conscience not recognize its own?

We might, from the evolutionary point of view, criticise Mr. Fiske's History in sundry other particulars; but our space is overrun. Prof. Thomas's work seems to us, on the whole, the best of those here considered in its treatment of the main question (in one form or another) of American politics from 1789 to 1894. He has an excellent observation on the effect of the civil war in lowering "in many

ways the moral tone of the whole country"; and might have shown how the survival of the Republican organization as a war party has put it in the very shoes of slavery as an obstruction to independent thought and effort touching all reforms. Only now (if there is to be no step backward toward protection) have Stuart Mill's words of congratulation at the close of hostilities come true:

"The chains of prescription have been broken; it is not only the slave who has been freed—the mind of America has been emancipated. The whole intellect of the country has been set thinking about the fundamental questions of society and government; and the new problems which have to be solved, and the new difficulties which have to be encountered, are calling forth new activity of thought, and that great nation is saved, probably for a long time to come, from the most formidable danger of a completely settled state of society and opinion—intellectual and moral stagnation."

FOUR HISTORIES OF PHILOSOPHY.—I.

A History of Philosophy. With especial reference to the Formation and Development of its Problems and Conceptions. By Dr. W. Windelband. Authorized translation by James H. Tufts, Assistant Professor in Chicago University. Macmillan & Co.

History of Modern Philosophy. By Richard Falkenberg. Translated with the author's sanction by A. C. Armstrong, jr., Professor in Wesleyan University. Henry Holt & Co.

An Historical Interpretation of Philosophy. By John Bascom. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A History of Modern Philosophy. By B. C. Burt. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

If history is to be conceived neither as mere narration nor as the study of obsolete politics, but as an account of man's development, then the history of the mind is surely the main thing, and that of thought must stand at its head. It is odd how different to different sciences is the importance of their own chronicles. Mathematics can boast of a long and interesting past; but it is neither needful nor usual for mathematicians to know much about it, except only in certain special branches—the theory of elasticity, for example—which are regularly studied in the discussions that gave them birth. An examination of the beginnings of mechanics throws, as is well known, no feeble light upon the science itself; while physicists hardly concern themselves about early optics or early meteorology. Certainly of no natural science can it be said, as might very well be maintained of metaphysical philosophy, that its history is of more consequence than its doctrine. The University of Paris, and every mediæval university, required a student to be fairly well trained in the history of philosophy before they would allow him to teach it. The metaphysics of those days was theology, and theology was metaphysics. Now Charles Thurrot and many good authorities understand that in Paris, after a man had taken his hood of master of arts, he had to study fourteen years more before he could be admitted to the degree in theology. That study was, of course, almost entirely historical. Denifle understands that only fourteen years in all were required; but what a contrast even that to modern practice.

Dr. Windelband is a German professor of high reputation. His manual history of philosophy, now presented to English readers in such English diction as can emanate from the most modern, if not (after the flesh) the most

wealthy, of earth's seats of learning, is well known everywhere; his larger work is celebrated. Throughout Germany, this scholar is extolled for his accuracy, for the energy of thought with which he compresses a whole philosophy into a paragraph, and for his crystal clearness. The most faithful student must tremble at the idea of criticising such a work. We will suppose that the college "senior" for whom the book is intended, reads upon p. 342 about the *Parva logicalia*, which are a series of mediæval treatises explaining how the forms of everyday thought are to be made amenable to strict logical rules—explanations highly useful in times when formal accuracy of logic was exacted in all those scholar's disputations which filled most of the scholar's waking hours. Windelband, speaking of that one of these *Parva logicalia* which relates to "supposition," *i. e.*, the logical denotation of nouns, remarks that the importance attributed to this subject was "not without its precedent in antiquity"; to which he somewhat cruelly adds that "the reader need only be reminded of the investigations of Philodemus on signs and designations." Our student, not being blessed with Teutonic phlegm, blushes at this as a snub; for the investigations of Philodemus with which he is expected to be so familiar are contained only in a somewhat recently transcribed and fragmentary papyrus from Herculaneum, of which Dr. Windelband in this history has only recorded the bare title, *περί σημείων καὶ σημειώσεων*, which he now translates, "On Signs and Designations." Stung to the quick by the imputation of unusual ignorance, our ingenuous youth rushes to the college library, gets the transcription of the papyrus by Gompertz, and proceeds to dig out the Greek until he has mastered the substance of it. Having done this, he finds to his amazement that the title cannot, agreeably to the contents, be understood to mean, "On signs [*i. e.*, words and the like] and designations," but, on the contrary, must be rendered "On signs [*i. e.*, facts symptomatic of other facts] and their significance [*i. e.*, their inferential value]"; and further that the substance of the treatise bears not the remotest affinity with the "supposition" of nouns, but is a discussion of the philosophy and value of inductive reasoning! In short, he discovers that the superlatively learned Windelband can certainly never have opened the volume of which he talks so glibly. After that, the poor fellow will begin to doubt whether Dr. Windelband has so much as read Henry of Ghent (whose works are downright *rare*), though he talks of him as an intimate; and he will almost be tempted to extend that doubt to Richardus de Mediavilla, whose name is printed in this volume Mediavia.

The above is, perhaps, not the worst of swarms of amusing blunders of detail with which the book abounds, and which the translator had better have obtained leave silently to rectify. Roger Bacon is spoken of as a product of the Franciscan order, which is as if Marie Antoinette were called a product of the French Revolution. Albertus Magnus stands shoulder to shoulder with Roger Bacon—a worse error yet, exposing defective perception of the calibres of men, and at the same time naïve want of acquaintance with the spirit of natural science. Besides, in truth, Bacon never tires of satirizing Albert. True, he does not name him—that were unnecessary and coarse. But there is no mistaking the characterization, which, so aptly fitting the most prominent man in the learned world of that day, cannot be meant for some indiscoverable

nobody, when Bacon plainly says he means a person of universal celebrity. Errors of a more important description are equally rife. Windelband speaks of the *hæcceity* of Scotus as a *form*, instead of a *formality*, or *formal principle*, a widely different thing. This error has been committed by others, but it none the less argues a terrible misapprehension of the central idea of Scotus, as well as a total obliviousness of the literature of the dispute between Thomists and Scotists. We notice, too, that Prantl's unfounded theory of a "Byzantine logic" is spoken of as if it were beyond all doubt. This hypothetical "Byzantine logic" is represented by a single book, the Greek of which is fishy to the last extreme. It is full of phrases which can only be explained by the Latin, and its ideas are even more Latin than its language. In short, it is a manifest translation from the Latin.

Dr. Falkenberg's history is eminently modern in its methods and preferences. It furnishes what may be called the conceptions best received in Germany to-day of the different systems of modern philosophy. It is little colored by personal views, is luminous, sensible, and accurate. Not its least recommendation is that it has been translated by a man able to write an agreeable English style. It is to be feared that unfortunate presswork, quite painful to the eyes, may detract from its usefulness.

Dr. Bascom, who has hit upon an expressive title for such a sketch of history as his, is well known as a dualistic intuitionist. The business of his life has been to fit out young men destined to practical pursuits with a kit of ready-made opinions and to train them in not criticising the same. Everywhere throughout this book he is occupied with the good or bad practical results of the different philosophies. What has been taught is the question that interests Dr. Bascom, and on that head he makes many shrewd observations, forcibly expressed; but as to what train of thought it was that led to any doctrine he does not care, and teaches his scholars not to care. The most important knowledge, he holds, "admits of no further explanation than is involved in the very act of knowing" (Bascom's 'Psychology,' p. 13). Or, as he says in another place, "sound philosophy gives no entrance to the feeling that, knowing a thing once, we need to know it again, in some other way, in order to know it" ('Historical Interpretation,' p. 390). This is declaring war on criticism in general. Provide yourself, young man (in his general tone), with a full set of sound beliefs, and then take good care of them, and don't indulge in idle longings to know things in two different ways: so you will have a successful and happy life, and go to heaven when you die.

That a history of philosophy ought to be written in the country where it is to be used, is a maxim that gains in weight the more one reflects upon it. Mr. Burt's pretty volumes, besides being written by an American to meet the wants of American students, present several excellent and original features. In the Kantian volume, one-third of the space is devoted to English philosophy. The corresponding ratio in Falkenberg, though the translator of that work has entirely rewritten and greatly enlarged the English section, is only 1-10. Among German authors, such intense concentration of thought, such subtilty, such fine edge upon ideas as Scotus, Ockham, Hobbes, Hartley, Berkeley, James Mill, Clifford exhibit, will be sought in vain. Everybody knows that there is a German history of philosophy, admirably translated, that has been

of very great usefulness in this country; we mean Morris's *Überweg*. But now that work, more than twenty years old, is growing out of date. Besides, it states only the conclusions of philosophers, not their reasonings, and then, it is written from a foreign point of view. We need an American history of philosophy, upon an encyclopædic scale. It does not matter much whether we have good summaries of Aristotle, Descartes, Kant, nor even of the second grade of philosophers, but it is for information about writers whom few can find time to read, Samuel Parker, Toland, Arthur Collier, Jean Senebier, Tetens, Rosmini, and hundreds of other third-rate philosophers, that such a work is greatly needed. Mr. Burt devotes a section (sometimes several) to each writer, who is taken up, his life briefly narrated, his doctrine stated, and his influence estimated. If Mr. Burt does not display an exceptional power of comprehensive statement, the clear, sensible, and logically excellent arrangement of his work lights it up very much in more senses than one. We could wish he would take more pains to satisfy our curiosity as to just how each metaphysician came to think as he did.

Teutonic Switzerland. — Romance Switzerland. By W. D. McCrackan. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 2 vols., pp. 315 and 270.

We are in the habit of looking upon Europe as practically immutable, compared with growing, ever-changing America. But as a matter of fact it has been shown lately that the cities of Germany grow and alter more rapidly than our own; and to realize how many changes are constantly taking place in mountainous Switzerland, it is only necessary to compare two or three successive editions of Baedeker's guide-books with one another. Every year new mountain-railways are built, new points of view made accessible, and so many other changes are made that thirty or forty extra pages are required to describe them. Indeed, the mere facts and dry directions multiply so rapidly that all historical details and touches of local color in description have to be gradually eliminated. Thus a Baedeker ten years old would to-day utterly fail of its purpose as a guide; but if you should happen to come across one in a hotel book-case, you would find in it much interesting reading-matter which has been gradually crowded out by the accumulating facts and directions.

Under these circumstances it was a happy thought on the part of Mr. McCrackan to write these two volumes, which are intended to be a sort of literary supplement to a guide-book, themselves avoiding all practical directions regarding routes and hotels, but supplying the "atmosphere" which has gradually been banished from the guide-books. Doubtless, also, the author valued the opportunity thus provided to make use of chips that accumulated in his workshop while he was writing his "Rise of the Swiss Republic." His present volumes might be briefly described as a pleasant mélange of descriptions of cities and mountains, together with historic glimpses and short biographies of famous men and women who were born in Switzerland or made it their home—Rousseau, Voltaire, Mme. de Staël, Calvin; Saussure, the subduer of Mont Blanc; Sismondi, Amiel, Agassiz, and others.

Globe-trotters think it necessary to go to Japan in order to find the modern side by side with the mediæval, but Switzerland presents many sights almost equally incongruous. "In Bern you can see on the streets a car-line, run

by compressed air, side by side with picturesque milk carts drawn by dogs." Or contrast the luxurious hotels at Interlaken, filled with fashionable loungers from the city, with this picture:

"A pitiable old woman draws a cart. Little boys are scraping dung from the white road. Two women, mother and daughter, are hoeing potatoes, while a grandchild is playing in the dirt—the group forming a perfect Millet, unconsciously artistic. A man drives by on a box-cart full of liquid manure—the drainage of the stables—that leaves behind it a trail of stench to pollute the air. In truth, the life of this peasantry often resembles the misery of city slums as closely as existence out-of-doors can do."

The greatest of all contrasts is the electric and cable railway, bringing thousands up to electrically lighted hotels in elevated situations which a century ago were visited only by chamois-hunters and cowherds. Mr. McCrackan devotes a chapter to these railways, dealing leniently with them, as being for the greatest good of the greatest number. This on the æsthetic side; and then it is so much cheaper, too, to go to Märren, for instance, by railway, than it was by the old method of having your baggage carried up by tortured porters, that one can understand what the author means when he says that the "art of climbing on foot, with its risks and exposures, is going the way of stage-coaching, as a hobby for rich amateurs." But the strongest argument in favor of these railways is overlooked by Mr. McCrackan. It is this, that formerly a tourist had expended all his energy by the time he reached the altitude where the scenery began to be sublime, whereas at present electricity takes him up to a point whence every step further reveals new vistas of grandeur; the train itself, meanwhile, is out of sight in five minutes, and, therefore, makes no dissonance in the Alpine solitude.

For those who prefer the old method of seeing the Alps, plenty of elbow-room remains. They may, for instance, join a party of peasants gathering wild hay, of which process our author says:

"On a fixed day, the haymakers start in companies, carrying with them large nets, or pieces of cloth, to wrap the hay in. For weeks they live in upper solitudes where a false step or an instant's dizziness is fatal. The hay, thus painfully procured, is stored in the upland chalets until it is required for the cattle wintering in the valleys. There is something piteous in this scraping together of every blade of grass; and yet this mountain hay is sweeter and better the higher it grows, fuller of aromatic herbs that give it a delicious, healthful flavor for the cattle."

Among the historic details set forth in these volumes none is more amusing than the fact discovered in the House Chronicle of Grindelwald that, as late as 1777, the glaciers which have since constituted the fame and wealth of that village were looked upon as unwelcome intruders into the valley; so much so that the old monk Sarnen, famous as an exorcist, was begged to operate upon them. To-day "the hotel-keepers are looking for some one to hypnotize the glaciers, and to keep them from crawling back into their mountain recesses." In their indifference to the grandeur of such phenomena the Swiss villagers of a century ago were not alone, for up to that time all Europe regarded the snowy regions of the Alps with the same feelings of terror and æsthetic indifference that the Indians of Washington display towards the summit of Mt. Tacoma. Mr. McCrackan, indeed, goes so far as to intimate that the Swiss themselves have to this day not learned to admire their mountains and glaciers for their own beauty and grandeur, and

he ruthlessly destroys another old Swiss myth—that of the world-famed sentimental homesickness of the mountaineers: "There is no sentimental mountaineering cult about them," he says. "They are apt to complain of the hard work when you question them; and their unhappiness in the plains is apparently more of a physical discomfort, due to the heavy air and change of food."

Of the chapters on cities, that on Geneva is the best. The odd fact is mentioned that the Genevese have never erected a statue to their famous citizen Calvin; and believers in free trade will find on pages 13-15 an excellent illustration of the effect of a foolish protective policy in neutralizing rare advantages and resources for trade. In the chapter on Zürich it is erroneously stated that Wagner completed his "Lohengrin" there. In the pages on Lucerne, Engelberg, and other places, there are some delightfully realistic descriptions of the manners and customs of British, German, and French tourists worthy of Daudet. As for the Swiss themselves, our author finds the most salient features in the national character and appearance to be a certain *Urwüchsigkeit*, which makes them "honest as the air, gnarled as the trees are"; the absence of class distinctions and of fashion; frugality, sometimes verging on niggardliness and sordidness even in the rich; and the rarity of personal beauty. But his generalization becomes too sweeping when he says that "the Alemannian race, which predominates in German Switzerland and southern Germany, is perhaps the plainest in Europe," for there is infinitely more personal beauty in southern than in northern Germany. We will take leave of these entertaining volumes with some suggestions regarding two towns of Italian Switzerland. As Monte Generoso is really the lion of Lugano, and is now accessible by railway, mention of it might have been fitly made, for tourists in general do not yet know of this incomparable view, which is far superior to that from the Rigi. For the benefit of invalids in search of winter sunshine attention should have been called to a striking peculiarity of Locarno. This peculiarity, to which the chief forester of Switzerland first called the reviewer's attention, and which he tested subsequently, is that Locarno has many more sunny days in winter not only than any other spot on the Italian lakes, but than the cities of the Riviera, or of northern and central Italy. It is indeed one of the most extraordinary phenomena in Europe, this sunlit corner of Lago Maggiore.

Cruising in the Netherlands. By R. C. Davies. London: Jarrold & Sons.

ALTHOUGH the author does not state it in his book, the daily "forecasts" in the Dutch newspapers relate more to water than to temperature, and to the moisture in the earth beneath rather than in the air or heavens above. Less important than of wind and rain is the knowledge of the depth of water in the rivers, canals, *zee*, *meer*, and *diep* of the Netherlands. Mr. Davies, some years ago, wrote an entertaining book on the cruise of his boat *Atalanta* in Dutch waterways. Since that time a number of Englishmen, as he states (and, to our knowledge, several Americans), have voyaged through the inland waters of this submarine country. They have found much to enjoy while thus far away from the beaten tourist track. Rural Holland is thus both visible and enjoyable. Here the ancient distinctive costumes are worn with as much pride as of yore, while the habits of the people are

more primitive. Life on the waterways is the life for the artist and the traveller seeking fresh impressions.

Having made three cruises in the inland waters from Leeuwarden to Ghent, Mr. Davies, in this handy book of about two hundred pages, furnishes information which is almost wholly practical. He tells of yachts, boats, models, prices, help, wages, local regulations, routes, charts, maps, canal dues, etc. In short, he gives exactly what the intending traveller over shallow waters wants to know. His twenty-five short chapters describe his water journeys, and he tells in outline what he saw in the villages, towns, and cities. He is no Havard or De Amicis, and his style is free, unstudied, and by no means classic. He has read Motley, and expects the boat-tourist to have read and to keep on reading him, but he does not quote or apply Motley's passages. Indeed, he would gladly see the nine volumes of our American author condensed into one, with the polysyllables left out. He has many good words to say about the Dutch, and even their language becomes only a kind of grandfatherly English, after a little practice with tongue and ear. In Friesland the resemblance to each other of the two languages is almost comical.

The little book is abundantly but cheaply illustrated and has a good map, besides the detailed route of the *Atalanta*. Not a few Dutch things which to a foreigner, seem stupid, unreasonable, behind the times, and utterly uncouth, are shown by this book to be eminently useful, appropriate, and exactly suited to necessities and environment.

A Handbook of Mythology. By E. M. Barends. Maynard, Merrill & Co. Pp. 334.

If any one thinks it profitable to teach classical mythology systematically, he will find this book a useful manual. But the whole subject was felt to be stale even in the second century; and, if the pardonable pedantry of the Renaissance and the less excusable affectation of certain later periods have momentarily revived a taste for such frigid decorative lumber, these resuscitations have been less and less successful at each attempt. Meanwhile Islam, India, Scandinavia, and even Persia and old Egypt, have given fresher material to modern letters; and, if it is argued that detailed instruction is needed for the understanding of authors whom very few students read without notes—to say nothing of our copious classical and other dictionaries—it should seem still more important to teach the myths which have been brought into general notice by the poets of this century, whose works are often read without any notes whatever; and this would, on the scale of the present volumes, necessitate a considerable library on a very slight subject. It does not seem worth the while to attempt to teach mythology systematically, except as an introduction to the comparative study of religions, for which this book is neither intended nor adapted.

It is furnished with a pronouncing index, and with process illustrations of ancient sculpture, which might be of use. It is divided, rather loosely, into two parts—myths and legends—which the author does not, and could not, keep distinct. The second part is by far the better one, and makes very interesting reading for young people. The first part is divided (quite *au grand sérieux*) chronologically, as if we were dealing with real history, while the true chronology of myths—that which registers their origin and development—seems to be almost wholly neglected.

We have noticed several inaccuracies, such as the derivation of Dioscuri (p. 33) "from dios, gods, and kuroi, youths," and misprints such as Boestia for Boeotia (p. 24).

The History of Sicily. Vol. IV. From the Tyranny of Dionysius to the Death of Agathoklès. By Edward A. Freeman. Edited by Arthur J. Evans. Macmillan. 1894.

THAT Prof. Freeman was a writer who kept far in advance of his printers will be deemed fortunate by those readers who had hoped with his guidance to explore the labyrinth of Sicilian history, and who now have the fourth volume of his great work within reach. More than this, Mr. Evans, Freeman's son-in-law and the editor of this volume, intimates that two more may be expected, one on the Roman Conquest of Sicily and another on the Norman. In our review of the previous volumes, we set forth the characteristics of Freeman's colossal work so amply that we have now little to add. We regret that he began his history with the flood, or earlier, instead of with the Norman conquest, because, while his immense activity in research and his inexhaustible fertility in conjecture have enabled him to insert a good many trifling details into the history of Greek Sicily, he has not, on the whole, thrown new light on the general current of that history. The evidence was all in ages before he was born, and any one could read it in the works of the ancient historians. But Norman Sicily, and, indeed, the annals of the island under the rulers of Hohenstaufen, Anjou, and Aragon, have never been well written, and it was particularly desirable that a man whose information thereon surpassed that of any of his contemporaries should cover that field. We rejoice

that Freeman's notes on Norman Sicily were left in such condition that they can be published.

Concerning the present volume it may be said that Mr. Evans has done his work very carefully and reverently. Almost all the notes and several of the appendices are by him, and they show that he has the ability to make simple and brief statements, which his father-in-law had not. His specialty is numismatics, so that he has been able to throw illustrative side lights from his study of Sicilian coins. In several places where the posthumous manuscript failed, the editor avoided a break in the narrative by quoting from Freeman's short 'Story of Sicily.' The fourth century B. C., which is embraced by this volume, saw in Sicily three remarkable rulers—Dionysius, the magnificent tyrant, Timoleon, the Washington of antiquity, and Agathoklès, the cruel tyrant; and the reader will find that Freeman presents all that Plutarch and Diodorus, the chief authorities, say about them, besides a vast amount of conjectures which only Freeman himself could spin. His hatred of "the sons of Canaan" in their eternal conflict with the "sons of Hellas," his alertness in hunting up the origin of every village, his trick of antithesis and repetition, his vigor and his erudition, are as conspicuous in this as in any of his works. After we have been amazed by some of his qualities and wearied by others, we involuntarily think of Gibbon, and wish that our modern apostle of the "science of history" could have learned the art of condensation and of narrative from the "unscientific" author of 'The Decline and Fall.'

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Husband of No Importance. Putnam's. 50 cents.
Balfour, Dr. G. W. The Senile Heart: Its Symptoms, Sequelæ and Treatment. Macmillan. \$1.50.

Chute, H. N. Physical Laboratory Manual. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80 cents.
Davis, T. W. R. The Questions of King Milinda. [Sacred Books of the East.] Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Eckstein, Ernst. A Monk of the Aventure. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.
Fleide, Adele M. A Corner of Cathay: Studies from Life among the Chinese. Macmillan. \$3.
Grinnell, Elizabeth. How John and I Brought up the Child. Philadelphia: American Sunday School Union. 80 cents.
Henty, G. A. In the Heart of the Rockies. Scribners. \$1.50.
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